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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1900.

## The Week.

The Convention of the Anti-Imperialist League at Indianapolis was not very large in point of numbers, but the character of its membership and the earnestness which marked its action will undoubtedly give a considerable push to the Bryan campaign. It will infuse some of its own spirit into the Democratic party, and improve its morale to some extent. We have seen no evidence as yet that the Democratic party, either North or South, has taken much interest in the subject of Imperialism, one way or the other, or has been greatly incensed at President McKinley's policy in the Philippines. The party pushed the Republicans into the war with Spain, and it did not object heartily to "Expansion" at any time prior to the meeting of the Kansas City Convention. In the preliminary meetings of the Anti-Imperialist League very few Democrats were seen, and it is not easy now to pick out the leaders who have distinguished themselves in that fight. Mr. Bourke Cockran, Mr. Lentz of Ohio, Mr. Towne (the Silver Republican), and Mr. Bryan are exceptional cases. When we call the roll of leading Democrats throughout the country, which ones have made their mark as opposed to Imperialism *per se*? Not Altgeld nor Tillman, neither Croker nor Hill, neither Senator Jones nor George Fred Williams. These men swallow the platform because it is the platform, but they would have swallowed any other as readily. With one of the recommendations of the Convention we are in hearty accord, that "they [the American people] vote for those candidates for Congress in their respective districts who will oppose the policy of Imperialism." It is possible to defeat the McKinley policy in this way without electing Mr. Bryan.

We had hoped that the Convention would nominate a third ticket which could be supported by those who are not willing to incur the risk of turning the Government of the United States over to Mr. Bryan and all that he stands for, but who cannot sustain Mr. McKinley's Philippine policy. Whatever chance there is for a third nomination is now left to the men who met at Indianapolis on the 14th, and who presented their views unavailingly to Gov. Boutwell's Convention, and then adjourned to meet again in New York on the 5th of September. These men are to be commended for their courage and adherence to their convictions in the same degree as those who differed from them. It is to

be regretted that some blackguardism from a delegate from Illinois should have cast an aspersion upon Mr. Osborne of New York, whose character needs no vindication in any place where he is known.

Mr. Edward M. Shepard's letter giving the reasons why he shall support Mr. Bryan in this campaign, like all other political papers coming from that source, is a very weighty production. It is full of the earnestness that comes from profound conviction, and, therefore, has great "carrying power." It is marked by extreme deference to the opinions of party associates who do not agree with him. He gives the names of several illustrious Democrats of Greater New York (Abram S. Hewitt, Charles S. Fairchild, Alexander E. Orr, Oswald Ottendorfer, George Foster Peabody, and Henry Hentz), who have declared publicly that they cannot support Mr. Bryan, and says that their opinions and example have had great weight with him, and that he has been slow in reaching his own opposite conclusion on account of the respect he entertains for them. His main argument is in substance that this is the crisis of republican institutions, that the cause of free government is in imminent peril; that if Mr. McKinley is reelected, not only will freedom in the Philippines be overthrown, with all the reflex influences upon America that that implies, but Mr. McKinley will naturally slide into an Imperialistic policy in reference to China, and that if he does so nobody will have any occasion to be surprised. The result is, that Mr. Shepard will go one way, and Mr. Charles Francis Adams will go another. Gamaliel Bradford and Dr. William Everett will take different paths, and nobody can deny that both are men of conscience and courage. Mr. Bourke Cockran and J. Sterling Morton are also travelling different roads. These two are of about equal standing in the Democratic party. Both opposed Mr. Bryan, as Mr. Shepard did, four years ago. Mr. Everett P. Wheeler and Mr. John De Witt Warner are in the same category. They belong to the same wing of the Democratic party, which is also Mr. Shepard's wing, and they now take diverse courses.

Senator Morgan of Alabama, the ranking member on the Democratic side of the Committee on Foreign Relations, has never omitted an opportunity to declare his support of the McKinley policy in the Philippines. Mr. Bryan's attempt in the Indianapolis speech to make Anti-Imperialism the paramount issue of the Democratic campaign does not affect the leading Democratic Senator. The *Herald*

has asked Senators whether they think that the United States should now withdraw its forces from the Philippines, and whether it should consent to a dismemberment of China. Mr. Morgan replies that the United States, having now performed its first great duty in China, should complete it in caring for our people and others involved in a common peril and distress, without entering into entangling political alliances with foreign nations, and then adds these significant words:

"Our ability to do this splendid work came from our strength in the Philippines. If that strength is increased, we can maintain there an armed neutrality and give an asylum to those entitled to our care until the clouds pass by."

Evidently Mr. Morgan intends to make it plain that he will lend no favor to the Bryan plan of getting out of the Philippines at the earliest possible day.

The promptness with which the jury found a verdict against Caleb Powers for his part in the murder of Gov. Goebel of Kentucky was a surprise to those who had followed the course of the trial. It can be explained as due either to the overwhelming weight of evidence against Powers, or to the invincible determination of the Democrats to convict him. The latter explanation will be generally accepted by the Republicans of Kentucky; but it appears that there was one Republican on the jury who declared himself perfectly convinced by the evidence. Curiously enough, the identity of the person who shot Goebel remains unknown—a circumstance which, of course, makes it more difficult to hold Powers guilty. What was proved beyond question was that he had brought down to Frankfort a large gang of armed men, and that he had threatened, more or less specifically, to shed the blood of his adversaries. It was pretty clearly established that the shot which killed Goebel was fired from Powers's office, although there was some evidence to the contrary. All that we can say is that the testimony of the witnesses for the prosecution was sufficient to convict the prisoner, while that for the defence was sufficient to acquit him. Which set of witnesses spoke the truth, was for the jury to say; and they apparently had no hesitation in deciding. From the newspaper reports it would seem that evidence was improperly admitted; but the proceedings will be thoroughly reviewed on appeal.

It is good news that the Democratic Governor of Kentucky has called a special session of the Legislature, to meet a week hence, for the modification of the Goebel law. The whole country is interested in having honest elections in

every State. This is true of every year, and even when the only question at stake may be which of two men shall occupy the Governor's chair. In a Presidential year, however, it is essential that the whole country shall have confidence that the result will be honestly reached and declared in a State which may prove the pivotal one. Nothing contributed so much to the quiet acceptance of the result in 1884 as the general conviction that New York had a fair election law. Kentucky ought to have such a law before next fall's election.

Gen. Wood's speech at Matanzas on Thursday implies that there has been a modification of the purpose of our Government to retain its hold upon Cuba in the indirect way of controlling the foreign relations and the finances of the island, but it is still a matter of doubt whether there has been any change. The recent proclamation issued by the General was for a convention "to frame and adopt a Constitution for the people of Cuba, and as part thereof to provide for and agree with the Government of the United States upon the relations to exist between that Government and the Government of Cuba." There could be no doubt of our intention, scarcely veiled under these words, to grant to the Cuban people only a part of the independence promised to them in the joint resolution of Congress which preceded the war with Spain. That resolution declared that

"The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

According to the published report of Gen. Wood's speech, there was no specific withdrawal of the requirement that the coming Convention should make the relations of Cuba with the United States a part of the Constitution, yet the general tenor of his remarks points to complete independence as soon as a "stable" government is formed. The proclamation, by the way, requires the Convention not only to frame, but to "adopt" a Constitution. This word would seem to preclude the idea of submitting the Constitution to a vote of the people after it has been framed by the Convention, especially as no mention of such submission is made in any other part of the proclamation.

The protesting delegation of Cubans, headed by Señor Cisneros, called on President McKinley on Saturday, and laid before him their objections to the scheme of semi-independence which the proclamation mapped out for them. According to an interview with Señor Cisneros, published in the *New York Times*, that gentleman does not look for any

change in the terms under which the Convention is to act. He says that for his own part he would walk out of a convention where he was not free to act upon the whole subject-matter of the Constitution. He believes also that the people of Cuba will not be satisfied with a Constitution framed under duress, and he adds that "time only can tell whether a revolution against the Americans will be necessary, should the present policy be continued." He looks for the happiest relations between the Government of Cuba and that of the United States if the former is left, after the adoption of its Constitution, a free agent in the negotiations, but only on those terms. If there is to be coercion beforehand, he expects only strife and bitterness as a result.

The leading article of the *Diario de Porto Rico* of July 30 bears the heading, "Why We Abstained from Joining in the Celebration," that is, of the anniversary of the union with the United States (July 25). It draws a contrast between the conditions prevailing under Spanish and under American rule, which cannot be considered flattering to us. In the first place, it says that Porto Rico enjoys less of civil liberty now than it had under Spanish rule. Civil liberty means not merely freedom of action under the laws, but participation in all the affairs of government. It means equality in making the laws as well as equality under them. What are the facts? The *Diario* says that formerly Porto Ricans elected three Senators and sixteen Representatives to the Congress of Spain, whereas now they have one delegate in Washington without a vote. As to the Executive Department, it continues: "We had a council of secretaries, whose resolutions were *always* sanctioned by the Governor. Now we have an executive council, chiefly composed of persons who were not born here and enjoy no standing whatever in the island, and will naturally interest themselves more for the country appointing them than for the region which pays their salaries." Still more surprising, perhaps, is the fact that formerly the island always had a surplus revenue, although it was taxed for army and navy expenses and for "pensions to the descendants of Christopher Columbus," whereas now it is facing a deficit amounting to one million dollars. The *Diario* has a long list of disabilities suffered by Porto Rico now that were not known under Spanish rule, ending with the degrading one that the inhabitants are not citizens of the United States or of any other sovereign power. They are not under the protection of the Constitution. They do not form any part of the nation to which they belong. "We have been granted nothing of what we were promised," it says, "and our condition is that of a slave adscript to a conquered soil."

Hawaii is undergoing the process of transformation from a quasi-republic to a Territory of the United States, and the first step is the development of political parties. Already the white population is sharply divided into Republicans and Democrats, with their appropriate Central Committees and organizations. Such a division in a new Territory with its purely local interests can, it would appear, be based only on personal habit and prejudice, but its very existence testifies to the invincible vitality of the party idea. "Votes" of greater or less respectability are beginning to trouble the quietude of the managers. There is an ominous possibility of a third party in the native or Kanaka movement. But, as the Honolulu correspondent of the *Philadelphia Press* remarks, the Kanakas are dying off pretty rapidly, while from the lack of effective leadership this largest of all the Hawaiian "votes" is likely to drift towards the great organizations and lose itself in one or the other. There is also a Chinese vote of some five hundred, which is regarded as safe for the Republican party.

The governmental situation in Hawaii offers some features of novel interest. The first Territorial Legislature must face new and pressing problems. Foremost among these is the question of local self-government. Whether under king, queen, or president, Hawaii has been ruled by a strong central government. Even Honolulu and Hilo, towns of 30,000 and 15,000 inhabitants, respectively, have been invariably so governed. Under the change of administration there is already a clamor for the recognition of local rights and powers as we have them in America, and the new Legislature will have its hands full in dealing with applications for city charters. This problem of changing from a centralized to a decentralized form of government is seriously complicated by the number of races to be dealt with, and the absence of a local administrative tradition. The raising of revenue will prove a problem of no less difficulty. Through annexation to the United States, Hawaii loses the customs receipts, until recently an abundant source of revenue. The present tax rate is only 1 per cent., but any proposition for increase of the rate will meet with strong opposition. Gov. Dole advocates the floating of a temporary loan, a policy which appears to leave the main fiscal problem untouched.

It really looks as though a practicable system had been devised for keeping unfit immigrants from getting into the United States by being smuggled through Canada. The principal railroad and steamship companies of the Dominion have agreed to cooperate with the United States authorities in enforcing an inspection at the Canadian port of arrival



which should be effective. Foreigners come by steamer to Quebec, and it is proposed to furnish ample facilities for the immigrant inspection officials at that point. The steamship companies agree to deport immigrants destined for the United States through Canada who are rejected by the United States inspectors; and the Canadian officials promise to use great caution in preventing any immigrant from obtaining railroad transportation to the United States who cannot show a passport and evidence that he has passed the United States inspectors. It is also reported from Washington that an agreement has been reached on the subject of medical examinations at the foreign ports of embarkation, and that hereafter United States Marine Hospital surgeons will examine all immigrants embarking at Liverpool, whether for the United States or Canada, and that intending immigrants whom they condemn will be refused passage. This is exceedingly important, if true. It has always seemed absurd that people physically disqualified should be brought across the ocean only to be declared disqualified when examined here, and then sent back. At some European ports, as at Naples, careful inspection is made under the supervision of the United States Consul, but in other places the matter is left to the steamship companies. These profess to make a thorough investigation, but experience has shown that self-interest too often inclines them to take the chances of rushing through diseased people for the sake of their passage money.

A careful examination of the facts in the recent outbreak against the negroes on the West Side of New York city leaves no doubt concerning the part taken by the policemen. So many witnesses have come forward to testify against them as to make the case perfectly clear. It was at first reported that a riot broke out of such extent as to be for many hours beyond the control of the police. We now understand not only that the police could have suppressed the riot at once, had they been so disposed, but also that they encouraged the rioting. They participated in the assaults on inoffensive negroes, and in some cases they began them. A negro came down Eighth Avenue on a bicycle, unaware of any disturbance and guiltless of any disorder, when he was attacked and clubbed by the police, and his bicycle demolished. Negroes who appealed to policemen for protection against the mob were knocked down with fist and club. A negro woman who ran for help to a policeman, was laughed at and turned over to her persecutors. Negroes who were riding in the street-cars were dragged off and beaten, while policemen stood by and smiled approval. On the following night a negro was taken to a police-station charged

with the offence of carrying a pistol, which he had just bought in order to defend himself against the rioters. Presently those who were outside heard him scream for help and for mercy. A number of policemen had knocked him down and were beating him. We could easily use up all the space at our disposal in repeating stories of brutality which are too well authenticated to be disbelieved.

With our bloody policy in the Philippine Islands endorsed by eminent clergymen, and with the results of the election in North Carolina acquiesced in by the country, it is perhaps hardly worth while to spend time in appeals for either justice or pity for the colored people. If they have been deluded by some former utterances of our statesmen into the belief that they are not an inferior and subject race, they must by this time be convinced of their mistake. They may, however, protest against their recent maltreatment with a certain plausibility. They are excluded from most employments. They are compelled to live in Ghettos, much as the Jews were in the cities of Europe. And on Wednesday night of last week many of them who were at work in various parts of the city, did not dare to return to the miserable abodes which were all that the superior races allow them to call their homes. They contribute according to their means to the support of our government, and have thus a certain claim to protection; and when they call on the police for it, they are cursed and clubbed and kicked. For moralizing in this vein, we must admit, the times are not propitious; but there are some warnings in this episode for white people as well as negroes.

John J. Ingalls had been dead as a force in public affairs so long that many people were doubtless surprised to find that he had lived until Thursday last. He had what used to be called "a brilliant career," when he was at the height of his power, but he was always too cynical in his ideas and theatrical in his methods to gain a firm hold upon the American people. Toward the end of his service in the Senate, indeed, he became so open and contemptuous in his ridicule for moral standards that he retained only the admiration of those who worship smartness. It was a curious contradiction that a State with so many men of strong convictions and firm principles as Kansas should so long have been dazzled by the mental pyrotechnics of a man who laughed in his sleeve, and at last even in their faces, at people who reverence high ideals. It was the very irony of fate that when the too long deferred end of his political career came, he should have been succeeded in the Senate by the very personification of

dulness in the shape of the Populist Peffer.

That the grippe has become one of the serious diseases in this country is shown by the mortality records which have been prepared by two New York physicians for the insurance exhibit of the Paris Exposition. Within a decade the disease has become of greater importance, from an insurance standpoint, than either smallpox or cholera, attacking persons of all ages, with the principal mortality falling upon policy-holders between sixty and eighty. Eight years ago, when the disease was epidemic in the United States, 129 deaths among policy-holders were reported; in other countries during the same year only four policy-holders died of it. Since then, while the mortality has fluctuated from year to year, the annual death-rate has assumed such proportions as to place the grippe second in the list of acute infectious diseases that have contributed nearly 9 per cent. of the total mortality recorded. The showing is believed to understate rather than overstate the actual mortality from this cause, since many deaths due to influenza have been erroneously attributed to pneumonia. If the disease has wrought such havoc among persons sufficiently vigorous to stand the tests of a rigid medical examination, to which applicants for life insurance are subjected, what must have been its ravages among the population at large?

Among the problems following in the wake of the occupation of Peking, not the least important is the question of what to do with the Chinese Christians. Many of these, it seems, have attached themselves to the missionaries, and all of them are identified, in the popular mind, with the "foreign devils" whom the present agitation has striven to cast out. To leave them where they are, meantime withdrawing the foreigners to places of safety, would doubtless expose them to serious peril. To afford them protection in any other way than by treaty would be a matter of great difficulty. To transport them would be a large undertaking, even if the Chinese themselves were willing to go. Our own position is peculiar. Although ourselves a Christian nation, we cannot admit these Chinese converts to the United States without violating our exclusion laws. It has been suggested that they might be sent to Manila, where "lower civilization" and "cheap labor" are less to be feared. It is by no means clear, of course, that the question is one in whose solution this country will have a determining voice; but if Manila is seriously to be thought of, we have no doubt that some pious souls will see, in the events which gave us the Philippines, only further proof of the mysterious leadings of Providence.

## THE PATHFINDER.

The Republican organs cannot keep their minds off Mr. Bryan's speech; and we, too, recur to it, to whom it gave no uneasiness though we foresaw its withering effect on the third-party movement. Political progress, no more than human progress in general, moves in straight lines, and the reformer's ends are often, perhaps oftenest, reached by ways and instrumentalities not comprehended in his programme. The Anti-Imperialist has scored a triumph already in dictating a Presidential acceptance exclusively upon his own ground. The candidate may be insincere, may be simply cunning, but he has mastered the grammar of reform, and his exposition of genuine American principles—call them Hoar's, call them Boutwell's, or Schurz's, or Chapman's—has not only surpassed his models, but has perforce obtained universal consideration. Seldom indeed is it that a Presidential candidate furnishes the best campaign document in his own behalf, and takes the lead in the higher education of the citizen voter of all parties. Mr. Bryan has opened school with a lesson in fundamental republican morality, and prefaced the exercises with appropriate readings from the Republican scriptures. One has but to compare this with the wildfire of 'Coin's Financial School' four years ago, to perceive how great an advance has been made in the Democratic canvass in reason if not in principle.

No one can deny that we owe this advance to Mr. Bryan's initiative, to the same will-power that imposed the folly of 16 to 1 on the Kansas City Convention—but let him alone to know on which plank to trust his full weight. This elephantine sense, however, is not uncommon. Other candidates, Cleveland included, have been obliged to shut their eyes on the shameful parts of a platform which they nominally accepted as sound in its entirety, and to select those which they could defend on the stump and promise to maintain if elected. Mr. Bryan's distinction consists, not merely in selection, but in a specific pledge of maintenance which he, and he alone, can carry into effect. The Democratic party in convention on July 4 committed themselves to this attitude respecting our Eastern possessions:

"We condemn and denounce the Philippine policy of the present Administration. . . . We favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; second, independence; and, third, protection from outside interference, such as has been given nearly a century to the republics of Central and South America."

This is clear and unequivocal, but it is weak in merely "favoring," and it makes no promise of consistent party action. In other words, in this particular, the platform resembles platforms in general—they are supposed to be self-executing, like curses and imprecations.

The authors of them are anonymous, the personnel of our huge conventions is incognizable and unrememberable, there is no party executive committee responsible for the drafting and introduction of the measures demanded. Hence the hollowness and emptiness of these declarations, and the contempt into which they have fallen. In the present case, the framers of the Kansas City platform could not refer to antecedent party conduct conformable to the resolution just quoted. It was one of the disingenuous features of Bryan's speech that he omitted all notice of Democratic joint responsibility for Congressional abdication in the matter of a colonial policy. There was no coherent opposition to the Administration on this subject, no shibboleth, no test. The drifting which suited the President and the Jingo was tolerated by Democrats and Republicans alike, and McKinley found plenty of positive support in both houses from his natural opponents. There was no reason to suppose that the Kansas City plank had in it any compelling power for Senator Morgan, for example, or for the rank and file.

Mr. Bryan has changed all that. He declares that, if elected, he will prove his sincerity in treating Imperialism as the paramount issue by summoning Congress in special session. Congress must assemble. It may again abdicate its function: Democratic members may refuse to obey their chief; Republican anti-Imperial partisans like Senator Hoar may refuse to coöperate with a Democratic Executive. Nevertheless, the issue will have been made up in sight of all the people, and Mr. Bryan, if thwarted, will still retain all the powers as Commander-in-Chief which McKinley has exercised from the moment he made war on Aguinaldo. More than that, he will have set an imperishable example to all succeeding candidates for the Presidency who wish to advertise themselves as men, and not plastic dough-faces under party or Congressional pressure. Nor would the example be less honorable for not being altogether the first of its kind. Seven years ago this month Mr. Cleveland convened Congress in extra session to repeal the Sherman Silver-Coinage Act, and succeeded, if by dint of some sorry bargaining. Mr. Bryan's originality lies in staking his election on a similar procedure, and at the very beginning of the Presidential conflict.

Should the battle rage more and more about the issue defined by Mr. Bryan at Indianapolis, to the exclusion of all other issues, real or factitious, Senator Hoar himself could hardly fail to applaud the strength of a leader who marshalled his forces to victory in behalf of the right of mankind to self-government. It would be the Cleveland miracle over again as regards persons; and as regards the party, it would demonstrate anew the fact that

while the Republican party has not shown since 1876 the power of self-regeneration, the Democratic—with all its base residuum, with all its Tammany thieves and ruffians masquerading as a political organization—has that power in reserve. It might also appear that Mr. Bryan's demagogic capacity, joined to his persuasive rhetoric, would serve him in winning the people to his side in dealing with a refractory Congress—an art for which Mr. Cleveland was slenderly equipped. Be this as it may. For the moment it is our duty to praise an act of courage and of high innovation, attended by admirable words which, had they been uttered *in vacuo*—that is, by a man quite unknown, or unsuspected of duplicity—would everywhere have been recognized as heralding a renaissance of public virtue and loyalty to national ideals.

## GENERAL APATHY.

The politicians may disagree on other topics, but on one subject they appear to be harmonious; they all deplore the apathy which prevails among the voters. The Republicans say that there is no doubt of McKinley's election if the Republican voters will take some interest in it. Unfortunately, there appears to be no means available for arousing their interest. Every one knew months, if not years, before the Convention that McKinley was to be renominated, and the same was true of Bryan's nomination. The interest at Philadelphia was confined to the unexpected episode of the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt for Vice-President; and at Kansas City there was a similar excitement over Mr. David B. Hill. But the popularity of Rooseveltism has waned almost as much as that of McKinleyism; and Bryanism has become tiresome, even to Bryanites. The Democratic politicians find nearly as much trouble with apathy as the Republicans, although they do not talk so much about it. They are tired of Bryan themselves; and the public has at least had abundant opportunity to satiate its curiosity about him during the last four years.

Emerson said that in order to understand any crime, he had only to look into his own heart; and the explanation of general apathy may be found by every individual who feels apathetic. The general comfort which now prevails is itself favorable to general apathy in politics. There is no large class suffering from poverty, as was the case in 1896. The farmers have been faring well, and are not troubled by their mortgages; the laboring classes are getting steady work and good wages. The masses of the community are really too busy at present to give much time to politics. The clergy always complain of the lack of spiritual fervor in times of prosperity; and the same influences affect political life. In 1896 half the people were embittered



because they had been pinched by the hard times, and the other half were frightened for fear the pinch would presently extend to them. The issue was apparently a technical matter of currency; but the interest aroused was because of the suffering and anxiety which the voters were undergoing.

Nominally, the same issue is presented this year. Mr. Bryan insisted on it, as a personal matter, and he had his way. But every one knows that it is not the same issue. The farmers who believed that the gold standard was the cause of the low prices of their products have been convinced of their error by experience. They do not care now for free silver. The people who were frightened nearly to death at the prospect of free silver coinage four years ago are now undisturbed. The Republicans are trying to scare them by explaining that the Gold-Standard Act was carefully drawn so as not to establish the gold standard, and by pointing out that a majority for Bryan means a Democratic majority in the Senate. But this scarecrow does not appear to frighten any one. Some people are so disgusted with the fraud practised by certain Republican Senators in emasculating the Gold-Standard Bill that they do not care if the Democrats come into power. Others do not believe that the Senate can be captured by the Democrats, and do not believe that a free-silver-coinage bill could be enacted under any circumstances. It is idle for the Republican politicians to tell these people that they ought to be apprehensive; the retort that the politicians ought to have removed all cause for apprehension is too obvious. The stock market is a good indicator of confidence; there is very little doing there, but prices do not decline.

There are other issues, of real or factitious importance. Think what sort of judges Bryan would appoint, say the Republicans. Well, people do think of it, and they do not like the prospect. But then they think of President McKinley's appointments, and they do not like the retrospect, or the prospect either. He appointed to a judicial office in New York a politician who was not fit for the place, against the protest of the lawyers in his own Cabinet. Many people think that if he has vacancies to fill in the Supreme Court of the United States, he will fill them according to the dictation of certain Republican leaders. The dreadful Democrats, we are told, have denounced government by injunction. As most people do not know what this means, they are not alarmed by it. Those who know that the real point relates to the summary punishment by judges of ordinary breaches of the peace as acts of contempt, instead of employing trial by jury, do not feel that the course of the Democrats is revolutionary.

Of course the issue of Imperialism is enough to arouse the strongest feeling. It has aroused intense feeling among the

small number of people who are familiar with the lessons of history, who understand the principles of our Constitution, and who foresee the misery which an Imperial policy will entail on the common people of this country. These people would be glad enough to fling themselves, heart and soul, into a campaign where this was the real issue. Some of them think that Mr. Bryan has made it such. They persuade themselves that if he were elected, our colonial policy would be revolutionized. But most of them, we apprehend, have little confidence that Mr. Bryan could repair the mischief he did by forcing through the treaty with Spain.

On the whole, the general apathy is not surprising. People do not feel sure that the election will settle anything. They do not know what is going to happen; but they do not see that it is likely to be anything very different from what is happening now. The Democrats promise to maintain the pension abuses in full blast; they would very likely undo the reform of the civil service; they would let the protective tariff alone; and they would probably tax the country as heavily as the Republicans. As a party they are pledged to no particular measure except the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1; and most of them do not care anything about that. There is nothing in this programme to arouse enthusiasm, but the Republicans have little better to offer. A very large number of intelligent people would take a certain satisfaction in the election of McKinley because it would mean the defeat of Bryan, and they would take as much satisfaction in the election of Bryan because it would mean the defeat of McKinley. When people have nothing to do but to make a choice between evils of apparently equal magnitude, they are likely to be rather languid and apathetic.

#### AMERICAN DEALING WITH CHINA.

The rescue of the foreigners at Peking from the perils to which they have been, for more than two months, constantly exposed, closes the first act of an historical drama hardly to be paralleled in history. The uprising of the Chinese, though now seen to have had its preparation in events extending over a number of years, burst upon the world with a suddenness which, for the moment, left the governments and ministries of Europe in a state of bewilderment. Whether the outbreak was to be only temporary, or whether it was the initial movement of a great national upheaval, no one could tell; while the rapid progress of the disturbance, and the imperative necessity of quelling it by force and at all hazards, if the whole Chinese Empire was not to be given over to anarchy, immediately raised the dreaded question of the future of China, with all its well-

known elements of international enmity, jealousy, and greed.

Now that the first part of the programme has been successfully carried out, it cannot fail to be seen that the part played by the United States has been one of distinction. Our own interests in China, from whatever standpoint they might be viewed, were of such importance that prompt and decisive action on our part was not only fitting, but necessary. If national honor and good name meant anything to us, we could not sit idly by while our citizens were killed, their property destroyed, and the rights guaranteed to them by treaties violated or repudiated. Yet it was clear that either diplomatic, naval, or military co-operation with the other Powers concerned might easily draw us into dangerous alliances, and perhaps so involve us in the affairs of China as to compel us to share, to some extent, in the various schemes which the restoration of peace would bring forward. To many persons, the sight of American troops campaigning in China had such an "imperialistic" color as to be, from the first, a ground of serious alarm. On the other hand, the unpreparedness of the European Powers, as well as of the United States, for coping with the extraordinary situation in the East, together with the absolute necessity of going ahead, notwithstanding complete uncertainty as to where we were coming out, bade fair to launch us upon an undertaking of endless difficulty and expense, and with consequences disastrous to our own safety and independence.

That the United States, notwithstanding the prominent part it has taken in the relief of Peking, not only has not met disaster, but has still a free hand in the further treatment of the Chinese situation, is due most of all to the wise and far-seeing policy of Secretary Hay. At a time when the official spokesmen of European governments were either silent, or else admitting their inability to say precisely what they intended to do, and while, in the meantime, international suspicions and jealousies bade fair to leave the besieged foreigners to their fate, Secretary Hay, in a brief note to the diplomatic representatives of the United States abroad, defined in clear and straightforward terms the policy to which this country proposed to adhere. So far as the United States was concerned, the first step to be taken was the restoration of order, and all necessary force was to be employed to achieve that result. In all our operations, however, the end in view was to be the establishment of peace, the preservation of the integrity of the Chinese Empire and Chinese Government, and the maintenance of our treaty rights, and an "open door" for trade. Further than this, the United States would not go. So far as this country was concerned, there was to be waged in China no war of sub-

jugation, conquest, or territorial partition. "The United States," said Secretary Hay, "is opposed to the partition of China." Our object was the reestablishment of the *status quo*, and not the erection of a new or dismembered China on the ruins of the old one.

This declaration of policy, at once frank, dignified, and palpably unselfish, unquestionably did more than anything else to clear the air and bring the Powers to agreement as to the military steps to be taken. A second declaration four weeks later, called out by Li Hung Chang's suggestion that the Ministers be sent under escort to Tientsin, was no less explicit, and, as things have turned out, equally effective. The United States, it was declared, could enter into no negotiations so long as free and unrestricted communication with the American Minister at Peking was denied. As an indispensable prerequisite to negotiations, the attacks upon the legations must cease, communication must be restored, and order must be secured; and until these conditions, demanded not as favors, but of right, were fully met, military operations would continue. It was at once evident, of course, that this plain statement virtually threw down the gauntlet to China, and made possible any number of startling moves. China might treat the reply as equivalent to an ultimatum, and itself declare war. It might murder the foreigners. It might sow dissension among the allies, and, perhaps, land the United States in isolation and defeat. Nothing can be clearer now, however, than that Secretary Hay's announcement was exactly what the Chinese Government needed to bring it to its senses and induce it to stay its hand, and that the opposition to the advance of the international army was weakened, from that time on, by the certain knowledge that the allies were not to be seduced by fair words or intimidated by covert threats.

The success which has crowned American diplomacy in this matter is so far a matter of national achievement that no personal or party feeling ought to color the recognition of it. Out of a tangled and dangerous situation, full of pitfalls and snares, into which the United States was plunged with scarcely a word of warning, this country emerges with dignity and great honor. For the time being, no doubt, the treatment of the Chinese difficulty has appreciably enhanced the prestige of the Administration. The greater difficulties, to be sure, are still before us. What may follow the occupation of Peking, no one can tell. Undoubtedly, the question of the partition of China will yet be very seriously discussed, but the troubles of the Administration with our possessions in the Philippines seem not likely to tempt President McKinley or his advisers to seek more territory in that part of the world. So long as the United States main-

tains a body of troops in China, however, it has itself marked out its own course of action, and has the satisfaction of knowing that its course has had, up to the present time, the assent and co-operation of the Powers. It is earnestly to be hoped that nothing may occur to change our present policy, or turn us from the path which thus far has led to such conspicuous and gratifying success.

#### THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VII.

##### THE BLACK-AND-WHITE.

LONDON, July, 1900.

The disappointment of the exhibitions is the black-and-white. It is true there is much of genuine interest, but it is found chiefly in the Centennial Collections, while the good work in the Decennial Sections is so scattered that it fails to produce any effect whatever. Curiously, illustration, the art of all others whose complete development belongs to the nineteenth century, is always the least well represented on these occasions. In 1889, at Paris, a few illustrators were brought before the whole world for the first time—Vierge, Charles Keene, Abbey. In 1893, at Chicago, thanks chiefly to the publishers of the large magazines, some idea was given of the excellence and distinction of American illustration. But, even at Chicago, black-and-white had not a section apart; it was overshadowed, as it ever has been, by painting, and the only hope was that the Exhibition of 1900 would, at last, do it the justice and insure it the prominence it deserves.

Paris has failed to fulfil this expectation, and you begin to understand why when you examine the constitution of the various Committees of Selection. On the American Committee, there were at least two artists who made their reputation as illustrators, but, too often, the work of selection seems to have been left to men who have no practical interest in illustration, and, what is worse, make no pretence of having any. It may be the fault of their indifference, it may be the result of some traditional system of classification in France, but it is discouraging at the outset to find drawing classed with painting, wood-engraving in another division with etching and lithography, and modern methods of reproduction omitted altogether. There is no attempt to group the arts of book-illustration together, or to have them judged separately by a jury of experts. Only here and there, in the Publishers' Department, is there any adequate suggestion of the work that is being done at the present time in black-and-white. As for an adequate representation, you might think it was out of the question until illustration, as a vital, living form of art, shall belong to the past. For the inconsistent part of it is, once an art does belong to the past, its value is appreciated; once an artist is dead, no matter in what medium he worked, he becomes a classic, to be treated with all honor. The retrospective or Centennial Collection of French drawings and prints is complete and delightful, and would be a most valuable introduction to the art of illustration as practised to-day, were the existence of that art only as much as recognized. The history of the century is one of continual growth, and the methods of the earlier decades, to be understood, should be considered in relation to the more modern work. The

last hundred years have seen the invention of wood-engraving and lithography, the change from copper to steel in metal-engraving for the illustration of books, an entire revolution in reproduction by photography—in a word, they have seen the almost phenomenal popularization of illustration. It is one long story of change and development.

In the early part of the century, when there was no photography, if the artist worked for the metal-engraver, he made his design in an elaborate form, it was copied on the plate, and the original was spared. It was the same when he worked for the reproductive lithographer. If he made the lithograph himself, his prints were but the multiplication of his drawing. On the other hand, if he drew for the wood-engraver, it was on the block, and his work disappeared in the engraving; but the engravers of that period were themselves artists. These different methods are admirably recorded in a fine series of drawings and prints.

It begins with the classical, rather pompous and ponderous designs of David, Gros, Guérin, Girodet, Gérard, really studies for their pictures, and not illustrations at all. Then came the vigorous sketches, so many protests of independence, by Géricault, Delacroix—his caricatures will be a surprise to most people—Decamps (all these as striking as their paintings in the galleries down stairs), and a marvellous, probably unrivalled collection by Ingres, portraits in pencil, so beautiful, so refined, so learned, so perfect in draughtsmanship, they make one wish he had never used a brush, and attempted to draw in the color that meant so little to him. Still more numerous are the notes and sketches and more carefully finished designs by the men whose profession was illustration—Monnier, Grandville, Lami, Devéria, Gavarni, Daumier—the greater number in pen-and-ink strengthened by flat washes of color, the effective early method that might better be revived than the primitive naïvetés the modern artist prefers to borrow from a more remote past. There are also the designs of another group of painters who either illustrated very occasionally, or not at all—Paul Huet, Corot, and the Barbizonians, Legros; among them, it is amusing to find Victor Hugo in two romantic compositions, as magnificently exaggerated as his descriptions in 'Notre Dame,' but impressive in their extravagant fashion.

The series of lithographs, naturally, is not as exhaustive as in the great show of lithography in 1895, but it covers the ground fairly well. It opens with the inevitable "Cossack" by Baron Lejeune, and some of the initial experiments by Girodet, Denon, Horace Vernet. It includes the most famous of the few masterpieces by Géricault, Delacroix, Isabey, and many of the most distinguished and, in their day, notorious prints by the artists who won for lithography its astonishing popularity—Charlet, Grandville, Monnier, Lami, Devéria, Gavarni, Raffet, Gigoux, Daumier. It ends only with the performances of Manet, Hervier, Fantin, and the little group who revived lithography as an art, when it had lost its supremacy as a method of popular illustration.

But it is impossible to describe in detail a collection that would require an entire article to itself; and this is as true of the etchings, which are mainly reproductive, with here and there the original designs of Méryon, Lalanne, Bracquemond, Millet, Le-



père, even the amateur performances of Jules de Goncourt. I have never seen anywhere such a representative showing of the wood-engravings of the first half of the century. There are prints from almost all the illustrated books that had a great vogue from (putting it roughly) 1830 to 1850 or 1860, and are now sought after by the collector. The illustrators are chiefly the same men who made those endless numbers of lithographs—Lami, Monnier, the Johannots, the Devérias, Gigoux, also Jacque, Meissonier, and, indeed, too many for anything like a complete list to be given here. The engravers were the men who developed wood-engraving in France, most of them having learned their craft from Bewick or his pupils—Best, Leloir, Andrew, Brévière, Laveille. The great book of those days, the prize of the modern collector, is the 'Contes Rémois,' with illustrations by Meissonier, engraved by Lavoignat, and, fortunately, a set of proofs has been lent by M. Lepère, who, with Baude and Lévillé, bring the history of wood-engraving well down to 1889.

But, long before this, photography had been the cause of a radical change in the conditions of illustration. It had given the illustrator a freedom never hitherto enjoyed. He, more than all other artists, had been restrained by technical limitations, far more so than the painter, who is held within bounds by his frame, or the sculptor, whose imagination is chained to his bit of marble. The illustrator, provided he was the master of his craft, could now make his drawing as large as he chose, and in whatever manner best pleased him, and it was photographed on to a block of the required proportions for the wood-engraver, or of metal for the photo-engraver. There is no question that this freedom was a new incentive to the art. Many artists who had hitherto always held aloof were induced to illustrate, while the illustrator of experience was able to experiment and strike out fresh paths for himself. As many new departures followed in black-and-white as in painting. The illustrator, too, led revolts and inaugurated improvements. Then came what the enthusiasts called the revival of book decoration, and in a wilderness of mannerisms and affectations was found occasional evidence of originality, occasional expression of very distinct personality. Increased activity among illustrators gave a corresponding stimulus to the art, or science, of reproduction. New and more ingenious methods were evolved, until the developments and changes of the last twenty years are almost beyond belief. But of this activity, of this growth, this never-ceasing increase in the popularity of the art, what recognition is there in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts? Practically none. In section after section, French and foreign, drawings and prints alike are hidden in dark corners or banished to blazing balconies. Where the painter may cover a few feet with his one canvas, the illustrator is allowed but a few inches for his drawing. Ambitious painters, nowadays, work on a colossal scale simply because they fear that, if they do not, they must be overlooked in an exhibition. What chance is there, then, for the illustrator to attract attention, when, anyway, for his work to be fairly represented, he should show not one, but as many drawings as were made to illustrate a certain article or book? And this custom of reserving for black-and-white the worst and most insignificant places would con-

vince many people, who really care more for it than any other form of art, of its comparative insignificance. It seems almost as if the painters were jealous of the illustrator's greater success and popularity.

In the French Section, where there is more space, matters are not quite so bad, and yet bad enough. The one long gallery is not large enough, and the result is the unpleasant overcrowding that comes from a series of alcoves on either side and screens running down the centre. Little fault need be found with the collection of etchings, lithographs, and wood-engravings. No new etcher, within the last decade, has arisen to take the place of Félix Buhot, but there are the prints of Louis Legrand, Renouard, Lepère, Lunols, and all the men now at work, with the unexpected exception of Hellen, of whom I could find no trace; and also the clever and amusing color experiments of Raffaëlli, Jeannot, and too many more to name. All the lithographers whose designs have been adding to the gayety of nations in *L'Estampe Originale*, and in the two Salons year after year—Dillon, Lunols, Carrière, Chéret—are here in endless array. And the wood-engravings and woodcuts, original, reproductive, and in color, by Lepère, Baude, Lévillé, Henri Rivière, are no less conspicuous. The original drawings of the most distinguished or popular French illustrators are, however, not so easy to discover. In vain I searched the catalogue and the gallery for the most prominent of all, Forain, Caran d'Ache, Steinlen, though they do appear in the French Section of Publishing and Printing, a mile away. Nor is it only that many are missing. Others, like Boutet-de-Monvel, have unaccountably refrained from sending their finest work; or, like Louis Legrand, Renouard, Vogel, are so scattered, here, there, and everywhere, that an estimate of contemporary illustration in France, as a whole, is out of the question.

If there is any country in which modern illustration is generally supposed to have made the most striking advance, it is America. But the foreigner must wonder why this should be when he reaches the American Section. One short stretch of wall on the balcony, and a screen in the forgotten room below, are considered sufficient for the representation of the arts of drawing, etching, lithography, wood-engraving, and architecture in the United States. Even the miniatures share the already too restricted space. I admit these are unusually good examples of the art to-day, when, in England, a miniature is little more than a touched-up photograph on ivory. It is long since I have seen work as delicate and charming as Mrs. Fuller's, and as personal, in a way, though there may be no mistaking the source of her inspiration. But the merit of the miniatures is no excuse for their encroaching upon the absurdly limited space nominally devoted to black-and-white. Of the quality of the prints and drawings there can be no complaint; it is a question, altogether, of quantity. In etching, Mr. Whistler has a number of his masterly prints, the greatest surely since Rembrandt's, and Mr. Pennell, a series of aquatints, and that is all. In lithography, one print by Mr. Whistler exhausts, as far as can be seen, the efforts of lithographers in America. In wood-engraving, there are examples of Mr. Cole, Mr. Wolf, Mr. Davidson, Mr. Kingsley, Mr. Johnson,

and, according to the catalogue, Mr. Kruell, whose prints, however, to my regret, did not appear upon the walls. But the original drawings are few, and these few are hung to anything but advantage. Mr. Pyle's one design, in oils, is lost among the paintings, though why it should be there might be hard to explain. Blum and Remington are absent, while Abbey, Pennell, Frost, Gibson, Clark, MacCarter have either been allowed to send such a small number of drawings, or are placed so badly, that their work does not tell as it should. This is the more provoking because other countries, with less to show, have, by building in their portions of the balcony, gained in hanging space, and, therefore, have been able to make more of a display.

In the British section, one is struck principally with the omissions. All the things one, in reason, expected to find, have been left out. In England, if anywhere, originated the modern so-called revival of book-decoration. But though the Kelmscott Chaucer has been thought worthy of a case of honor in the publishers' section, not one of Burne-Jones's designs for it is here. Ricketts and Shannon, disciples of Morris, have nothing. Anning Bell has nothing. The Birmingham School have nothing, for Mr. Gaskins's drawings, decorating the walls of a bedroom in the English pavilion, hardly seem to form part of a black-and-white exhibition. Walter Crane is the one representative of the decorative group. Again, Phil May is now the leading English comic draughtsman, and deservedly so, but he, too, has nothing. Sambourne and Raven-Hill are the living artists who, with Du Maurier and Keene, uphold the traditions of *Punch*. Of the younger men, Greiffenhagen, Hartrick, and Sullivan have nothing; Nicholson alone is admitted, and that rather grudgingly, for his color prints are well above the line. To all appearances, England is without lithographers, though Shannon's lithographs have a world-wide reputation. And, if a half-dozen of the best-known etchers are included—Haden, Short, Watson, Hall, Cameron, Holroyd—where, one cannot but ask, are William Strang and Edgar Wilson?

It is the same story in the German and Austrian sections. A few odd drawings, lithographs, and etchings lie in portfolios or are hung where it is almost impossible to see them, in the German balcony. But Menzel, the greatest illustrator of all, is not an exhibitor, and you must go to the German pavilion for Sattler—or so I believe; he is carefully protected in a locked apartment to which I was not admitted—and also the younger men, Unger, Fischer, and the group who work for *Jugend*, and whose gay and daring designs are made by Hirth, the Munich publisher, the feature of his exhibit. For Austrian illustrations, also, you must leave the Grand Palais and wander to the Rue des Nations, and then, even in the Austrian pavilion, there is but one illustrator, Mucha, seldom worthy of his fame at home, but, fortunately, in this series, illustrating the "Our Father" so much better than usual that it would be doubly interesting could he but appear side by side with the illustrators of the world.

The other sections make a still scantier showing. It is the distinction of Switzerland to boast one of the most distinguished and individual draughtsmen and one of the most distinguished and individual wood-engravers

of the day. But both Schwabe and Florian are so essentially French in their work and associations that they seem merely out of place in the Swiss section, where the comparative study of their work, that would add materially to its interest, is impossible. Spain, of course, has Vierge, but he does not repeat the sensation he made in 1889 with his 'Pablo de Segovia,' while scores of drawings by mediocrities, which may be useful in covering an expanse of wall vast beyond the Spaniards' resources, are without other value. Italy has been reduced to filling large frames with the leaves torn from the sketch-books of unknown artists. In Scandinavia the painters have monopolized the energy and enterprise. Tegner, a Dane, is one of the very few illustrators who exhibit. His reputation has long since spread across the frontier, but he does not increase it with the selection from his illustrations for Hans Andersen—a pity, for many in the book now being published are admirable. Zorn, the Swede, is the one etcher of note. Russia shows chiefly Gallen, the Finn, who, in his woodcuts, repeats the national legends of his pictures. Turkey boasts one etcher of distinction, Chahine. Belgium is barren. Holland has arranged on spacious screens, with every mark of appreciation, the etchings of Bauer, Toorop, and Witsen, and the lithographs of Veth and Hoytema, but no original drawings.

Other drawings and prints may, by chance, be discovered in other buildings. I even came upon a design by Mucha on a restaurant menu. But it is not possible to follow up such isolated examples, and, to any one who knows anything of the development of illustration, it must be clear that the main collection can by no means be accepted as representative. Nor does the responsibility rest with the illustrators. Think of the important and delightful illustrated books and magazines published since 1889! Had intelligent committees wanted the work, they would have known well enough how and where to find it. It may be said that the section of publishers and printers supplements the Grand Palais, and so it does to a certain extent. But, even with its aid, justice is not done to what is really the great art of the nineteenth century. Disappointment is the deeper because it is a question whether there will be soon again another large international exhibition in which so serious and unpardonable an evil could be remedied. In the meantime, it is interesting to know that, in England, the Government is busy preparing a show of black-and-white to be held in the autumn at South Kensington Museum. It is proposed to include not only the original drawings of artists of every nationality, but the engravers' proofs, and the prints as they appeared in book or magazine—the only way in which illustration can be adequately represented. If the scheme is thoroughly carried out, as it promises to be—the preparatory work is in the hands largely of illustrators—it will explain to the world at large, and the juries of selection in particular, what an opportunity has been lost in Paris.

N. N.

#### BOUTROUX'S PASCAL.—II.

PARIS, August 8, 1900.

Port-Royal and the Jansenists will ever be a subject of deep interest for those who take an interest in the moral development, in the

inner life, of humanity. It may be regarded as a new Reformation, which was not, as the first had been, heterodox, but which claimed to remain orthodox; it was the uprising of the purest souls of the seventeenth century against the corruption and levity hidden under the prosperity of the "grand siècle." "The pious ascetics," as M. Boutroux calls the Jansenists, "were, in the order of human affairs, the apostles of reason. They appreciated the philosophy of Descartes. They liked his reserve in religious matters, his purely rational method in scientific matters." Pascal personified more than any other this double character: he was a rationalist in science; he was in religious matters ready to incline his reason before the deep and unfathomable mysteries of the soul.

Pascal, when he resolved to live at Port-Royal, made profession of poverty and humility, and accepted, in all their rigor, the rules of the house. He got up at five in the morning, to be present at all the offices; he fasted on certain days, notwithstanding the prohibition of the doctors. He preserved his independence, however, and was not exactly a member of a community; he went sometimes to Paris. He wrote at that time an essay on 'The Conversion of the Sinner,' in which he creates, so to speak, the theory of the return to God of a soul long absorbed by the world. We have also an 'Entretien avec M. de Saci.' This timid and pious Jansenist was afraid of science and of philosophy; he considered that no new light was necessary to whoever possessed the Gospel. He discusses this subject with Pascal; Pascal confesses that he often reads Epictetus and Montaigne, and he eulogizes them. He sees in them the representatives of two essential forms of philosophy. The antinomy of their doctrines, of Stoicism and Pyrrhonism, is resolved by the Christian doctrine. The necessity of reconciling science with religion, or rather of defining well their departments, becomes the constant preoccupation of Pascal. We see traces of it in all his works, in the fragments of 'The Geometrical Spirit,' the 'Art of Persuasion,' etc. All these fragments were a preparation for the great work which he intended to write against atheism.

At the beginning of 1655, Pascal, who wished to live only in retirement and silence at Port-Royal, found himself engaged in the most bitter polemics. A priest of the parish of Saint-Sulpice temporarily debarred from the communion one of his penitents, because he had in his house a heretic, a friend of Port-Royal, the Abbé de Bourzeys, of the French Academy, and because he sent his granddaughter to the schools of the Abbey. On this occasion Arnauld published a 'Letter to a Person of Quality,' which was violently attacked by the Jesuits, and among others by Father Annat. Arnauld answered the Jesuits in a 'Second Letter addressed to a Duke and Peer of France.' In vain did Arnauld subscribe to the pontifical bull of May 31, 1653, which condemned five propositions that went under the name of the propositions of Jansenius. The Jesuits maintained that in his letter Arnauld justified Jansenius's book, and that he reproduced, on his own account, the first proposition of Jansenius (which said that grace is not always allowed to the just, giving for example Saint Peter's denial of Jesus). Arnauld's second letter was laid before the Theological Faculty, whose deliberations were long and confused.

The Government ordered Chancellor Séguier to assist them. On the 14th of January, 1656, Arnauld was condemned by 124 votes against 72. The friends of Port-Royal made their appeal to the public, and Pascal undertook to defend Arnauld against the Jesuits. The first 'Provinciale' appeared on the 23d of January, and was followed in rapid succession by sixteen others. These letters had originally the form of a small quarto; bound together they made a slender volume, and can still be found in the libraries of a few bibliophiles.

"Is the quarrel," says M. Boutroux, "on which Pascal enters merely a dispute of theologians? Is it merely to their talent, to their spirited eloquence, that the 'Provinciales' owe their worth and their interest? Are they merely a work of art, in which a local and transient subject assumes an ideal and immortal form? No. These writings are acts, like the speeches of Demosthenes. Pascal attacks in them a powerful order, protected by the Court; he incurs the danger of being sent to the Bastille. He does not wage a theoretical controversy; he employs all the weapons he can find in order to vanquish an enemy who, in the ideas of Port-Royal and in his own, is the destroyer of the Church of God."

The question of grace, which was apparently the question that divided Jansenius and the Jansenists from the Jesuits, covered in reality another question. The Jansenists' rigid morality was opposed to the easier morality of the Jesuits, supported by a dangerous casuistry. The Jesuits substituted for the judgment of conscience subtle, complicated, and written rules which tended to replace the higher law. They allowed a worldly complacency to poison the Church; they aimed at the government of society, and made sacrifices to the natural instincts of mankind.

Pascal's letters had an immense success; they were translated into Latin by Nicole, and became popular all over Europe. But they were condemned at Rome as heretical. The Sorbonne and the bishops condemned them also; and by an order of the Council of State of September 23, 1661, a copy of them was torn in pieces and burnt by the public executioner. Pascal was not moved by persecution. "If my letters," said he, "are condemned at Rome, what I condemn in them is condemned in heaven"; and he added, "Ad tuum, Domine Jesu, tribunal appello." A year before his death, on being asked if he repented having written the 'Provinciales,' "No," said he, "If I had to write them again, I would make them even stronger."

We must say a word concerning Pascal's relations with Mlle. de Roannez, sister of the Duke de Roannez. This lady lived in the great world, but she experienced grace and was tempted to enter Port-Royal. She had doubts, however, and hesitations, and consulted Pascal. He became, so to speak, her spiritual director. She finally entered Port-Royal and remained there as long as Pascal lived, the Jesuits trying in vain to make her change her mind. It must be said, however, that, after the death of Pascal, she became tired of Arnauld's severe direction, left the convent, and married at the age of thirty-four the Duke de la Feuillade. She lost two children, and, dying at the age of fifty, left a legacy to Port-Royal.

Pascal had all the charm of a spiritual director, but he aimed at exerting a wider influence than he could on individuals. He prepared a great work, in which he wished to attack not only the false doctrines of the



Jesuits, but also the false reasonings of infidels. He studied with much care the Gospel, the works of the Fathers of the Church, especially of St. Augustine. He revealed his plan to the "Messieurs" of Port-Royal, as they were called, who encouraged him in his enterprise, and he began putting his thoughts on paper, without any order, as they were suggested to his mind. Unfortunately, his health, which had always been very delicate, often interrupted his work, and he had adopted a mode of life which tended to make him weaker and weaker. He became very ascetic, renounced every sort of pleasure, and had but one thought, which was to prepare for death. Virtue was not enough for him; he aimed at sanctity. His only distractions were mathematical researches. He discovered, during these last years of his life, the true solution of some difficult problems, and he may be considered as one of the founders of the infinitesimal calculus.

While he was following his twofold pursuits, the research of truth in science and the research of religious truth, he was cruelly agitated by the continued persecution of Port-Royal. In 1661, the Court required of the ladies of Port-Royal the signing of a formula which in set terms condemned the doctrines of Jansenius. The sisters of Port-Royal resisted the injunction; they were afraid, in condemning Jansenius, of condemning St. Augustine. Jacqueline, Pascal's sister, resisted longer than any; she signed, however, at the end, at the bidding of Arnauld, and died of grief at the age of thirty-six. She was the person Pascal loved most in the world. When he received the fatal news, he simply said, "May God give us the grace to die as well." He fell very ill, and died on the 19th of August, 1662, at the age of thirty-nine.

Among the numerous papers which he left was the "Thoughts." His relations and friends examined these fragments, and proposed to publish them in some form. They were put in order by Arnauld, Nicole, and several others. M. and Madame Périer, Pascal's kinsmen, did not allow many changes or corrections. Publication took place in 1670. The little book, entitled "Pensées de M. Pascal sur la religion et sur quelques autres sujets, qui ont été trouvées après sa mort parmi ses papiers," will live as long as the French language. I have a copy of it in its original morocco binding, which I consider a real treasure. It is, perhaps, well that Pascal did not give his "Thoughts" a definitive and dogmatic expression. Such as they are, fragmentary, disconnected, they represent better the doubts, the anxieties, the torments of a noble soul, confronting the most formidable problems and the most sublime mysteries. The "Pensées" are immortal because the problems they deal with are the same for all generations of men.

## Correspondence.

### "SCRATCHING THE HEAD OF THE TICKET."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a Republican of "the strictest sect," who nevertheless participated in the Anti-Imperialist Convention and voted to endorse Mr. Bryan, I ask permission to say

a few words about the attitude of your paper.

First, politics being an art and not a science, being practical and not theoretical, and this community of seventy million people having many more or less conflicting interests, the makers of platforms aim to incorporate several issues so as to attract as many voters as possible. Which of the issues will dominate the campaign depends upon circumstances and upon the mood of the people. In 1896 the Republican platform contained a plank in favor of international bimetalism, in spite of the fact that the thinkers and moulders of the party meant to bring about the single gold standard. In 1900, it would be unwise politics for the Democrats to leave out national bimetalism at the pet ratio, in spite of the fact that the thinkers and moulders of the party know that the international single gold standard is a fixture. It would be unwise, because many people still cling to their forlorn hope.

Second, many Democrats voted for Mr. McKinley in 1896 because of the money issue, and in spite of the fact that they did not believe in international or any kind of bimetalism, and still less in protection. What Republican will say that they did wrong? Why, then, should it be wrong for Republicans in 1900 to vote for Mr. Bryan on the issue of Imperialism, even though they are opposed to other planks in his platform?

Third, as a matter of fact, the money issue is dead. I enclose you editorials from Western Republican party organs which assert that the Democrats cannot do anything for silver, and would not if they could. The Eastern organs of that party would not, however, judge it prudent to reprint such editorials. But even if silver were not a dead issue, it is not an immediate but a distant one. Surely, the American people can be trusted to steer their ship of state through the shoals and rocks of party issues. To use the simile of a well-known proverb, they have crossed the money bridge and are facing the Imperialism bridge. Do you think that they can be turned about and made to cross the money bridge again? In spite of Republican "spell-binders," they will consider that the question is settled, and that the silver plank in the Democratic platform is a mere call to party loiterers.

Fourth, the issue of Imperialism has lifted Mr. Bryan from the level of a party partisan to the plane of an American patriot. Republicans who, like myself (I know many such), mean to stay with our party on local and State issues, but to scratch the head of our ticket, will thereby vote not for Mr. Bryan the Democrat, but for Mr. Bryan the advocate of human liberty.

The futility of third tickets should be evident from the career of the Gold Democrats, who were able to affect the issue only in Kentucky, and that had no effect on the general result. Third tickets are merely "academic." In conclusion, let me say that the representatives of your ideas at the Indianapolis Convention (the third-party men) made a most favorable impression on all who heard or met them. I was and am proud of them as Americans. Personally charming and politically clean, their intelligence and patriotism were evident at a glance. But the acceptance of their ideas by the Convention would have been suicidal and would defeat its sole purpose, viz., the overthrow

of the Administration and its colonial policy.

DAVID JESSUP DOHERTY, M.D.

CHICAGO, August 18, 1900.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Chicago correspondent of this week asks you in what better way than by voting for Bryan the American people can express their disapproval of "the present misruler of their destinies," quoting your happy description of the candidate who is now asking them to endorse his conduct during the past three and a half years. You answer: "Our way is very simple—to refrain from voting for McKinley, and to persuade as many other people as possible to do so." Is it not true here that "the utmost that can be done at the time is the best thing to do"? A vote for Bryan is undoubtedly the most effective way of expressing one's disapproval of McKinley, and whatever feeling the voter may have against Bryan or any part of his creed gives emphasis to that disapproval. As Mr. Cockran aptly says, "When the republic is in danger, the only place for the patriot is in the ranks of its active defenders. Absence from the field of contest or shooting in the air can never be justified."

CHARLES B. WILBY.

BIDDEFORD POOL, MAINE, August 18, 1900.

### DANGERS OF PARIS FOR THE AMERICAN STUDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some one who knows life ought to raise a warning note against the tendency that has arisen lately to send young men to Paris to study. It may be that for art students it is not possible to get elsewhere what one gets in the studios of Paris, but for all other subjects Germany offers in the large, it can be said without contradiction, a wider and a more intensely cultivated field of learning than can be found in any other country. Even if it did not, the difference in the effect that can but be produced upon the character of a young man by three years of life in vigorous, healthy Germany and effeminate, sickly Paris is unspeakable.

The worst things of Paris a young American man who is going in for a life of strenuous learning, and who is the son of an American mother, is surely safe from. But, even so, the moral *tonus* (to use the physiological word), the fibre of character, can but be let down by several years of life in that atmosphere. If it is not—if one preserves a constant attitude of resistance to the view of life that stares one in the face—then it is at least a very painful three years' experience. No good American can be other than unhappy in Paris; this is a truer saying than the one which is usually uttered on this subject.

It is the old-established Anglo-Saxon custom to ignore such subjects as this, but it is a custom which prevails no longer except among the strenuously virtuous, who do not need its safeguarding; the light and unthinking feel no compunction as to what they shall talk about—how could they, when they listen night after night to the French plays which shameless managers make their profit in? It is time for those who would preserve for this country what we have been led to regard as the Anglo-Saxon standard of morality, to speak plainly, too, if they would not throw away the influence they might yet exert in a community threat-

ened with great danger. And in particular they should distinctly take the ground that Paris is a place where the joy of student life, as the healthy young American understands it, cannot be had.

In saying this, one need not commit himself to any judgment as to the precise statistics of vice in one country or another. What is certain is that nowhere else is it so open and blatant and all-pervading as in Paris. To show that I do not exaggerate, that to ignore this matter in the face of what everybody knows is a piece of pure silliness, I append a passage from a letter on Paris taken from a yesterday's daily newspaper; it is written (the article is signed) by a good observer and a man of honest speech, who is merely engaged in giving his readers a clear impression of what Paris is like. Let those wise and good men who are urging on a movement to deflect young men from the German universities and to send them to the Paris schools, consider carefully within themselves if they are doing well:

"It is to get sensations, to study the psychology of pleasure, to know what is meant by 'la vie de Bohème,' that all the world goes to Paris. It is to her we take our materialism, our appetite for good dinners, our love of the footlights, our extravagance, all the catalogue of our vices, and she does her best to satisfy our expectations. Above all, she creates about her an atmosphere which makes the puritanical person feel a strangely easy conscience. She has known many who came to pray remain to scoff at the sad-faced moralities. The metamorphoses that take place in her visitors might be set down as one of the sights of Paris."

C. L. F.

NEW YORK, August 11, 1900.

#### ON TRANSLATING THE CIVIL LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with interest the review of Mr. Walton's 'Civil Law of Spain and Mexico' which appeared in your columns of the 2d of August. With that part of the review which deals with the introduction I am not concerned; but as a student of the Roman, and a practitioner of the civil law as it prevails in Louisiana, I am much concerned at some of the criticism indulged upon the method pursued in rendering the Spanish code. This criticism appears to me not only unjust to the translator, but pregnant with sanction of a most dangerous method of dealing with the civil law. We are now in extensive contact with that system, and it would appear to behoove us to bring into it as little change as possible unless we have a better substitute to offer. Have we? Your reviewer appears to assume that we have. He even ventures to offer substitutes of his own for certain technical terms, many so consecrated by the usage and tradition of centuries as to have attained to an almost mysterious precision. Speaking of Mr. Walton's translation, it is said:

"It does not fail for lack of pains, but for lack of skill. Unless the reader knows Spanish, he will find much of it wholly unmeaning because the translator prefers to render Spanish words into their nearest phonetic equivalent in English, where an apt selection, a circumlocution, or the retention of an idiom incapable of exact translation would make the sense clear. For instance," etc.

The foregoing contains a wholly unwarranted assumption, viz., that much of Mr. Walton's translation is meaningless to any reader who happens to be ignorant of Spanish, solely because of such ignorance. But

it is not ignorance of the Spanish language that makes the translation meaningless, but of the Roman law. I am safe in saying that no Louisiana lawyer of education would fail to grasp instantly the precise import of the Spanish terms, or to assert the entire propriety of Mr. Walton's English equivalents. To do the first, he would be in no need of Spanish. He would see that the Spanish words come directly from the Corpus Juris, and that in form they have but slightly suffered from the law of consonantal change, and in substance not at all. If the propriety of the English equivalents was questioned, he would point out, for example, that the word *facultades* is but the *facultates* (*facultas*) so common in Roman jurisprudence; that the French Code Civil and its commentators frequently use the word *faculté*, and that the Code of Louisiana follows them both in the adjective *facultative*.

In the term *donationes inter vivos* he would recognize leading titles of the Institutes of Justinian, the Code of France, the Code of Louisiana, and of innumerable commentaries on all three. If the word *gift* was tendered him as a substitute, he would at once point out that that word in English imports only a gratuitous disposition of property; while the technical word *donation* is generic in the civil law, and comprises dispositions which are both gratuitous and non-gratuitous. For example, he might refer to article 1,523 of the Civil Code of Louisiana, which defines three kinds of donations *inter vivos*, viz., gratuitous, remunerative, and onerous. He would see as little reason for abandoning the term *donation* "having an onerous cause," and adopting in lieu thereof "gift for valuable consideration." He would recall the same long and exact tradition which fortifies his use of the word "faculty," and he would assert, with as much joy as is permitted to a lawyer, that a valuable consideration is not, and never was, necessary to support a civil-law contract; and that he is glad to have forgotten the five differing historical theories of the doctrine, taught at Harvard and elsewhere. If the abandonment of the term "institution of heir" were demanded of him, and the adoption, instead, of the term "bestowal or creation of heirship," his shudder would be uncontrollable. If to the injury of this demand is added the insult of the query, What sense do the words "institution of heir" convey? he would hold himself entitled to wrath. For of all the ancient and sacred formulas of the Roman law, there is none so ancient and sacred as that contained in the words *Instituo heredem*—the *caput testamenti* says Justinian—the words of nomination, without which every solemn testament must fail. The figure of the *heres institutus*, the instituted heir, gladdened the eyes of an expectant bar ages before Bracton borrowed wholesale from Rome the materials for the first crude legal treatise known to his half-savage island; and to-day he walks the soil of Louisiana and all the countries of Europe under his inherited name. Surely it would be a hardship to compel so large a part of the world to speak of his nomination as a "bestowal or creation of heirship" and of him as a "bestowed" or "created heir." Napoleon's commission gave him his due when it headed the third section of the third book of the Civil Code with the words "Institution d'Héritier," and Mr. Livingston, called by Sir Henry Maine the first legal genius of the age, rob-

bed him not in the Code of Louisiana (Arts. 1,495-1,499.)

The crowning injury would be wrought by bidding any Civilian to speak of "heirs defined or limited by statute, i. e., disposition to certain blood relations if living, somewhat analogous to the New York restriction on charitable bequests by a man of family," instead of "forced heirs," when he wished to designate a person entitled to the birth-right portion. He would recall at once the *sui et necessarii heredes*—the necessary heirs of the Roman law; and neither the *herederos forzosos* of the Spanish, nor the *forced heirs* of the Code of Louisiana, would in the least perplex him. Indeed, no severer criticism of the method Mr. Walton is blamed for not pursuing can be found than that which lies on the surface of the examples given of translations that might have been made by him. Thus the abandonment of the single word *forced* drives the reviewer to a periphrasis of thirty words, and one that wholly fails to convey the fundamental legal conception. Surely the price demanded is heavy and not to be slightly paid.

The point I wish to make in this connection is one made long ago by Sir Henry Maine in a paper published in the Cambridge Essays for 1856, entitled, "Roman Law and Legal Education." He contrasted the precision and rigorous consistency of terminology which pervades the Roman law and its derived systems, with the looseness of terminology of the English law. He first adverts to the poverty of our legal vocabulary. Of this the slender contributions of English law to the language of English speculation is adduced as proof; and against these slender contributions is set over the immense debt owed to the Roman lawyers by the language of European speculation in all branches. One of the prime causes assigned for the looseness of our legal vocabulary is the attempt so often made to eke out its deficiencies by an ignorant borrowing from the vast storehouse of the Roman law. The material thus introduced, in the hands of lawyers and judges profoundly ignorant of its weight of exquisite accuracy, has become positively baneful, when, in the hands of a less insular bar and bench, it might have been the means of redeeming our jurisprudence from the formless shape we all know it to be in.

It has been my lot from time to time to see the courts of Louisiana put, in the rightful places of Paul and Papinian, the jurists annually announced by the publishing houses of Boston, Minneapolis, and Chicago; and the result has been neither beneficent nor harmonious. If I have deprecated with over-much fervor a review which appears to sanction a like preference as a matter of course, the great names under whose shadow we practise our profession in Louisiana, and our jealousy not only for the continued, but for the further, recognition of their bearers as the rightful sovereigns of the domain of jurisprudence, will, I am sure, secure me indulgence.—Respectfully,

CHAS. P. COCKE.

NEW ORLEANS, August 8, 1900.

[Mr. Cocke is, of course, influenced by local sanction, nearly a century old, for the usage of English words in a Latin



sense that conveys no meaning to a stranger. Granting that certain terms of the civil law are untranslatable, is it not better to retain them in the Spanish or Latin, rather than render them in an English that (save through accepted usage) is at once uncouth and meaningless? This alternative we ourselves suggested. We admire Mr. Cocke's veneration for the law he lives under, and hope that something of his spirit will animate the revisers about to lay their hands on the civil law in Porto Rico. Were the bar in the common-law States affected by a like sentiment, we should have much less slovenly law-making.—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

Herbert S. Stone & Co. will publish during the autumn 'The Life of Edward FitzGerald,' by John Glyde; 'The Love of an Uncrowned Queen [Sophie Dorothea, Consort of George I.], by W. H. Wilkins, M.A.; 'Famous Trials of the Century,' by J. B. Atlay, M.A.; 'Chapters from Illinois History,' by Edward G. Mason; 'Wooings and Weddings in Many Lands,' by Louise Jordan Miln; 'Between the Andes and the Ocean,' a South American journey southward, by William Eleroy Curtis; 'More Fables,' by George Ade, author of 'Fables in Slang'; and 'The Fortune of a Day,' by Grace Elery Channing-Stetson.

Mr. Fisher Unwin's autumn announcements include 'The Unpublished and Uncollected Poems of William Cowper,' edited by Thomas Wright; 'Critical Studies,' personal and abstract, by Ouida; 'The Speaker's Chair,' by Edward Lummis; 'The Jew in London,' by C. Russell and H. S. Lewis; 'A Review of Irish History in relation to the Social Development of Ireland,' by John P. Gannon; 'A History of the Isle of Man,' by A. W. Moore, Speaker of the House of Keys; 'The Canadian Contingent,' Canada's work in the cause of the Empire, by W. Sanford Evans; 'Among the Berbers of Algeria,' by Anthony Wilkin; 'In the Ice-World of Himalaya,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman; 'The Paris Salon of 1900,' 100 choice examples; and 'In Birdland with Field-Glass and Camera,' by Oliver G. Pike.

The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston, have in press for immediate issue 'China's Open Door,' by Rounseville Wildman, United States Consul-General at Hong Kong.

Truslove, Hanson & Comba have nearly ready the seventh edition—virtually a new product—of 'The Temperance Problem and Social Problem,' by Joseph Rowntree and Arthur Sherwell.

Volumes xvi. and xvii. in the Scribners' uniform edition of Mr. Frank R. Stockton's novels and stories are also numbered ii. and iii. of the (short) "Stories." The latter has a very good portrait of the author, who, in "My Terminal Moraine," turned an honest penny out of the site of his actual New Jersey home, if not exactly in the way his humor represents when figuring the discovery of a glacier ice mine.

In the fourth volume of their series of "The World's Orators," under the editorship of Dr. Guy Carleton Lee, assisted by Dr. Joseph Cullen Ayer, Messrs. G. P.

Putnam's Sons have gathered sermons by seventeen preachers of the long period between Wycliff and Massillon. Recognizing the limitations imposed on them in most instances by translation, by the brevity of the excerpts, and by an evident desire to avoid selections polemic in tone, it may be said that the editors have had decided success in presenting characteristic examples of the oratory of men illustrative of as various tendencies as Savonarola, Luther, Calvin, Knox, Latimer, Bossuet, Fénelon, and Vieyra. The prominence given to the great French preachers of the age of Louis XIV. is doubtless deserved by their oratorical eminence, and adds materially to the interest of the compilation; but it is not surprising that the editors feel constrained to say that the sub-title of the volume, "Orators of the Reformation Era," is to be "construed in its broadest meaning," and to explain the inclusion of the eminent Frenchmen as "justified by the arrangement of the remainder of the series." The presswork and portraits are admirably executed.

Among the latest publications issued by Cornell University (Macmillan) are an 'Index to the Memorabilia of Xenophon,' the joint work of Catharine Mary Gloth and Mary Frances Kellogg, and 'A Study of the Greek Pæan,' by Arthur Fairbanks, Ph.D. The latter we shall consider hereafter. The Index is one of those patient labors of pure scholarship which can hardly receive due acknowledgment; it owes its existence partly to the encouragement and the example of Dr. Forman. We have only one suggestion to make. Under ἀν, μέ, ὄπωρ, and similar words, much valuable information is conveyed by simply grouping the references under certain heads. Perhaps we might plead for a slight extension of this method, which would note under certain verbs the construction or the cases by which they are followed. This would hardly add to the bulk of the volume, nor to the toil of compiling, while it would greatly assist the student of style and usage.

The special field of the John Crerar Library of Chicago was determined by agreement with the Public Library and the Newberry Library, as well as by the restrictions of the founder. It is defined as "that of the natural, the physical, and the social sciences, with their applications." The Library has a complete catalogue printed on cards, copies of which are to be found in the libraries just named, as well as at other institutions even as remote as the University of Champaign, Ill. The contents of its reading-room, which is used by the public without formality, have just been set forth in a list bearing date of January, 1900, a handsome large octavo volume, very open in its typography, and remarkable for the use of electrotypes titles. Noticeable, also, is the class arrangement, which is logical and not alphabetical by author or subject; things which belong together being grouped. An index chiefly of authors, but also of collective titles, anonymous, and some other, is the clue to individual works. The List is put forward tentatively for criticism as to fulness. As the compilers point out, its utility is by no means confined to the patrons of the Crerar Library.

One of the most valuable publications issued on the occasion of the semi-millennium of Gutenberg is Catalogue No. 24 of the house of Jacques Rosenthal of Munich, call-

ed 'Incunabula Typographica,' containing a description of 1,500 incunabula in the possession of this enterprising firm, covering the period from the invention of the art of printing to the year 1500 A.D. Although it is an elegantly printed octavo volume, with three colored plates and 80 illustrations in the text, the price is only 3 marks. The book will delight the heart and eye of the bibliophile and the student of literature. The collection represents the product of 400 printing establishments at fully 90 different localities; the city of Mainz, with the productions of Gutenberg, Fust, and Schoeffer, being in the lead. The chief publications of the German, Italian, French, and Dutch concerns of the period are all represented here, together with a number of the rare and costly "block books." There is an index of 32 pages.

China is the principal subject of the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for August, the first article being an attempt to show the two main causes of the present situation. A civilization which is founded upon the right of a man to his life and his property, and upon the inviolability of a contract or promise, has come into intimate relations with a civilization which denies that these are rights. The other and possibly as significant a cause is the "sacred right of rebellion," distinctly taught by Confucius when a ruler "ceases to be a minister of God for good." The corruption and incompetency of their present rulers are known to every intelligent Chinaman, and it is probable that the Boxer rising, with its watchword of "China for the Chinese," was originally directed as much against the Manchu dynasty as against foreigners. The difficulty of invasion and conquest is shown by a brief description of the physical features of the empire, and it is maintained that the hatred of foreigners is confined to the ruling classes, and is not shared by the people at large. Commander H. Webster, U.S.N., gives an interesting account of some of the manners and customs of the Chinese. Observations of their methods of doing things led him to the conviction that nearly all of these are the "results of long experience, a survival of the fittest in pretty nearly every branch of human needs and conveniences." Referring to the fact that even the lowest classes can read and write, he says "that their education comes largely through the steady and persistent use of the stray minutes of life. As soon as a piece of work is done, while waiting for a fresh job, or even standing in line, waiting his turn to deposit his package, bale, or cask, the coolie plays with a stick or bit of bamboo, writing a character over and over, or studies a few characters written on a bit of paper brought from a pocket." Prof. Simon Newcomb contributes some notes on the shadow bands observed during the late eclipse, and there is a brief sketch of the hydrographic work of the United States Geological Survey.

Mr. E. S. Grogan, in a communication to the *London Times*, says that the success of his journey from the Cape to Cairo was in part due to the fact that the Nile was lower than it had been for 150 years. "The consequent drying up of much of the marshland south of the Sobat junction alone rendered my overland route from Bohr to the Sobat possible." He estimates this region through which the river flows to be at least 10,000 square miles in extent, the most of

it being covered by dense growths of juicy vegetation. The loss of water resulting from this is shown by the fact that the Nile, after receiving the enormous volumes brought down by its great western tributary, the Bahr el-Ghazal, is but little larger than it is when it leaves Lake Albert, five hundred miles nearer its source. Referring to the various plans for reclamation, as by planting willows and poplars, he says, "It is the utter impossibility of imagining, even from description, the magnitude of these swamps and the impenetrability of the vegetable barriers that makes these schemes appear feasible." The sudd formation he ascribes chiefly to a plant growing in the Victoria Nile with a head like a small cabbage and a tangle of root which descends to a depth of twelve to eighteen inches. "These plants become detached singly or in blocks from the main mass, by hippopotami, crocodiles, fish, or some other disturbing influence," and drift until stopped by some snag, lily, or shallow. Refuse of all sorts accumulates about them; "then comes the papyrus and dense reeds, and what was originally a stick or a water-lily has in a few months become a solid island on which the hippopotami can walk." From observations of the effect of the native fish weirs on this floating vegetation, he believes that piles driven into the river here and there would deepen the channel and prevent the accumulation of sudd barriers.

The excavations conducted by Dr. Bliss for the Palestine Exploration Fund continue to yield meagre and unsatisfactory results, to the great disappointment of archaeologists and Bible scholars. In view of the astonishing wealth of inscriptions, constructions, statuary, pottery, etc., found by explorers, not only in Egypt and Babylonia, but also in Syria, Asia Minor, Crete, Greece, and, in fact, in almost every ancient country where the spade has been used in latter years, it was confidently expected that excavations in Palestine would yield important returns. Up to the present such has not been the case. We trust, however, that the Palestine Exploration Fund will persist in its search. Very few sites have yet been touched, and those, for the most part, not the most promising. It will bear repeating that a "School for Oriental Study and Research" is to be started in Jerusalem this October, on the same general plan as the archaeological schools at Athens and Rome, which have done so much to increase our knowledge of Greek and Roman antiquities and literature, and to improve the instruction in Greek and Latin in our schools and colleges. The first director of this school, it is announced, will be Prof. C. C. Torrey of Yale. The chairman of the committee having the management of the school in charge is Prof. J. H. Thayer of Harvard. More than twenty colleges, divinity schools, and universities in this country have become members by the subscription of \$100, and the American Institute of Archaeology has granted the new school a subvention of \$500. This renders it possible to commence the work on a very modest scale. There is pressing need of further funds to establish the school on a secure basis, and equip it adequately for the important task it has undertaken.

Dr. Erich Adickes of Kiel, a young scholar already favorably known through his writings on Kant, contributes to the *Rundschau* for August a fascinating study of human nature under the title, "Die Halben und die Ganzen: zwei Menschheitstypen." The lat-

ter designation he used for those self-centred characters whose intellectual and moral strength renders them independent of the outward support of immutable beliefs and institutions; to whom all things without, all authorities and principles, are of relative worth only. The former name denotes those far more common characters who need a multitude of conditions, opinions, ideals, authorities to lean upon, to appeal to as a last and absolute resort. The contrast between these two types of the "relativists" and "absolutists," to be sure, rarely appears with perfect distinctness; neither does the writer deal with individual examples. He traces the two tendencies in all human relations—in social and married life, in national (patriotic) and political affairs, in science, art, philosophy, religion—and shows, not without originality, their influence in each of them.

The German National Association of Engineers have decided to publish on a grand scale a "Technisches Woerterbuch," and have invited the coöperation of specialists abroad. Promises to this effect have been requested from leading savants in France, England, and America.

The French authorities are seriously agitating the project of a restoration of the Papal Palace at Avignon, one of the most characteristic specimens of mediæval architecture. For about a century it has been used by the Government as a barracks, as a result of which the structure is in a deplorable condition. Many of its wonderful frescoes have been erased or covered with whitewash. The walls of the magnificent conclave hall are covered with crude sketches and inscriptions. The two papal chapels have been divided into several stories. The chapel of St. John, containing exceptionally fine mural paintings, is sadly in need of restoration. The frescoes, regarded as the work of Spinello (Aretino), which picture the Last Judgment and the Crucifixion, are practically lost to art. In 1859, Napoleon III. promised that the Government would give four million francs for this work of restoration, but the project failed. Since 1870, the citizens of Avignon have been memorializing the Government for this purpose; but the state and the city cannot agree as to the payment of two million francs which the new barracks would cost. It is estimated that the restoration of the building would cost about seven million. The Minister of War has decided upon an inquiry with a view to a settlement.

From the annual report of the Secretary for Mines and Water Supply of Victoria, it appears that the annual output of gold in that colony during 1899 was 854,500 ounces, and that the total production of Victoria up to the close of that year amounted to 63,539,205 ounces, valued at £254,156,820. Thus, of the 110,413,597 ounces, valued at £427,194,079, which the Australasian colonies have yielded from the first discovery to the close of last year, 60 per cent. has been produced by Victoria.

Many people seem unable to understand what an extensive business the forging of Shakspeare documents, portraits, and signatures was in the early part of the last century. Forged Shakspeare portraits and forged Shakspeare signatures, therefore, continue to turn up from time to time with a distressing regularity. It is to be hoped that Zincke's well-known forgery, the Talma bellows portrait, which is on the market again and

offered in a recent bookseller's catalogue at eighty-five guineas, will not find a lodgment in Chicago beside some of the recent alleged Shakspeare signatures which have gone thither, or that, if it does tempt the Chicago millionaire, he will get an expert to look up its interesting history.

—In the double July quarterly issue of the Oxford English Dictionary (Henry Frowde) volume iv. runs abreast with volume v., Mr. Henry Bradley carrying on the torch from Grady to Greement, and Dr. Murray from Inferable to Inpushing. Greek derivatives are rare in this tract of the letter G, but the ending -graph finds a place, and we are told that Telegraphist is more common in England than Telegrapher. Under -gram there is a hint of future editorial preference for Program over Programme. Telegram, though formed contrary to Greek analogy, proved too convenient to be disallowed. Proposed in 1852, its record date in literature is 1857. Many hybrids, like Cablegram, have been fashioned after it. The obsolete Gramm—"what is written," a phrase—cited solely from Nathaniel Ward's 'Simple Cobbler of Agawam' (1647), is an Americanism which was worth taking root, but it fell by the wayside, and perhaps the Ipswich author of the Massachusetts Body of Liberties was its only sower. Walter Savage Landor had no better luck with his Grandor—for Grandeur, as if to help Clio to a neat rhyme for his own name. Emerson fathers Grandiose in 1843; Mrs. Browning Grandpaternal in 1844, and Byron Grand-dad in 1819. The oldest forms in English for this human relationship are Grandame and Grandsire, which go back to the twelfth century, while Grandfather and Grandmother emerge only in the late fifteenth. Grandevity has been superseded by Longevity. Mr. Bradley's leading rubric is Great, which fills eighteen columns. Very interesting is the evolution of Grammar, which at first and until the seventeenth century connoted only Latin, and a Grammar-school a Latin school. The intransitive verb Graduate, by the way, to which some purists object, was used by Southey in 1808. The French adopted their verb *graver* from the Teutonic, then formed *engraver*; and this, taken over into English as Engrave, has all but driven out Grave.

—Dr. Murray finds his interesting suffix in -ing, which is peculiar to English in its gerundial use, though this was unknown to Old English and Middle English. "The gerund," we read, "still retains one feature of the verbal substantive, viz., that of admitting of a preceding possessive case or possessive pronoun, as in 'after John's behaving so strangely,' 'upon my readily granting it.'" In the literary language this construction is regularly retained with a pronoun, and very generally with a single personal substantive; but, with names of things, and phraseological or involved denominations, the sign of the possessive began to be dropped already by 1600; . . . and, in current spoken English, the 's is commonly omitted with all nouns," as by Thackeray in 'Vanity Fair,' "I insist upon Miss Sharp appearing"—"where," adds Dr. Murray, "'Miss Sharp's' would now sound pedantic or archaic." With the passing remark that this would not, in our opinion, so sound to an American ear, we note a disregarded function of the novelist in bringing to light colloquialisms which are carefully excluded from the cultivated style



in almost all other branches of literary production. In this, novel-writers play the part of earthworms in dragging the subsoil to the surface. Scott was a very industrious earthworm with archaisms, which he sometimes misapplied, as when he used *Ingle*, 'a boy-favorite' (in bad sense), for 'chum.' So Bulwer-Lytton, in 1841, and Hall Caine half a century later, dependently or independently, converted *Ingle*, 'a fire on the hearth,' into 'an open fireplace.' Such an extension of meaning, however mistaken, is, of course, common enough. On a later page we find *Inherit* meaning 'to make heir' from 1304 to 1593 (Shakspeare), yet in 1400 starts up the opposite meaning 'to receive as heir,' and in the end prevails. Thus, given time enough, *Ingle* may be extinguished by its own fireplace. Another instance is afforded by *Inhabitable*, which meant 'uninhabitable' from 1400 to 1742, whereas the upstart sense of 'inhabitable' reared its head in 1601, and the prefix *in-* finally went over altogether from the negative to the locative. Curious is the fate of *Inhumane*, which began with the sense of 'inhuman,' of which it presently adopted the form and stress. Later, *Inhumane* arose anew, but with a milder signification. The poets are the natural recorders of this transformation. Dr. Murray warns us off from *Innuendo* minus the second *n*. Of the cleft or split infinitive he has nothing to say oburgatively or otherwise, contenting himself with referring by way of the *Nation* to Dr. F. Hall's discussion of the usage in the *American Journal of Philology*, and with citing from the *Academy* an undated example from Byron, "To slowly trace." The intransitive use of the word *Inform*, in the sense of 'to report,' is marked obsolete. We have met with it in Quaker minutes of the latter part of the last century in New Jersey (Hardwick and Mendham Meeting), *c. g.*, 1797: "Women friends informed that Hannah Housel . . . has gone out in marriage with a man not a member of our Society, by the assistance of an hireling priest"; and have found it still in vogue in the same denomination in Pennsylvania within the present generation.

—We have before us two volumes of a new historical series, edited by Mr. Oliphant Smeaton, which is entitled "The World's Epoch-Makers" (Scribners). A publisher's announcement states that the desire is to "give a bird's-eye view of the origin and progress of the most prominent movements that have taken place in theology, philosophy, and the history of intellectual development from Buddha to the present day." This definition is extremely elastic, and the set should prove a long one. The two volumes of which we now notice the appearance are 'Luther and the German Reformation,' by Dr. Thomas M. Lindsay, and 'Cranmer and the Reformation in England,' by Mr. Arthur D. Innes. The latter book comes first in order of publication, but we shall observe the order which is dictated by relative importance of subject. Dr. Lindsay frankly approaches Luther with the intention of treating his career in a new way. "Although Luther's life has been written scores of times, it has always seemed to me that there is room for another—for one which shall be careful to set Luther in the environment of the common social life of his time. . . . To show what that life was, and to show Luther in it, would, it seems to

me, bring him nearer us than has yet been done." Accordingly, he gives us much less of dogmatic theology than might be expected, and much more of the popular culture which existed in Germany at the close of the Middle Ages. In short, the book follows Janssen's method more nearly than that of the ordinary evangelical treatise which used to be written for English readers a generation ago. We welcome this change both as furnishing a new means of approach to an oft-discussed topic, and as better adapted to the tone of the series, which is comparative in scope. According to Dr. Lindsay's plan, a large part of the space is devoted to the different orders of society, peasants, burgesses, knights, and nobles, to the national character of the Lutheran revolt, to the effect of Luther's marriage on popular opinion concerning sacerdotal celibacy, to the superstitions which were prevalent in the sixteenth century, to Luther's educational views, and to the reformer's home life. He shows at all points familiarity with Luther's own works, whether theological or popular, and has formed his judgment at first hand, after examining the opinions of friend and foe from Cochläus and Seckendorf to Döllinger and Köstlin. While the learning displayed in the volume is sound and the thought mature, we have noticed a number of small errors in statements of fact, in the spelling of proper names, and in the use of accents. Some of these may be fairly called misprints, and altogether they do not constitute a serious blemish. Dr. Lindsay sympathizes with Luther so strongly that he lays slight stress on his well-known faults of temper. He concludes with a passage from Döllinger: "Even those Germans who abhor him most as the powerful heretic and the seducer of the nation cannot escape; they must discourse with his words, they must think with his thoughts." A good chronological summary and a carefully selected bibliography are added to the text of the volume.

—Mr. Innes's volume on Cranmer is considerably shorter than Dr. Lindsay's 'Luther,' from which it also differs in style and purpose. It shows a greater feeling for picturesqueness, and it is closely confined to the subject of religious politics. Mr. Innes likens the English Reformation to the Revolution of 1688. No one questions the importance of either, and yet neither can display a hero. Here the real subject is the movement, not the man, despite the title of the series. "The purpose of this volume is not so much to present a biography of Cranmer as to give a sketch of the ecclesiastical period through which he remains a consistently prominent figure; a period during which he, more than any other single individual, left his personal impress upon a national institution." The three great points in any life of Cranmer which aims at exceeding the compass of a personal biography are, first, the archbishop's policy towards Church and State in the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary; secondly, the lasting seal which he impressed upon the Church of England; and thirdly, the conflicting views of his public character which have been formed by Romanists, Anglicans of the High Church party, and Evangelicals of all classes. Mr. Innes keeps each of these matters before him in his accurate and thoughtful essay. One of the most striking opinions which he advances is that Cranmer, in deserting warm friends like Anne Boleyn and

Thomas Cromwell, was not acting from fear nor "from the political preference for expediency over right." The reason, Mr. Innes urges, why he acknowledged their guilt is, that he did not trust his own judgment when it came into conflict with Henry's, simply because he had come to place implicit reliance upon the King. This explanation of meanness—it is hardly an extenuation—on the ground of intellectual subjection is more novel than satisfactory, but it at least shows an acute sense of the relation which existed between sovereign and primate. Both in England and Sweden the breach with Rome represents the power of the crown rather than any religious initiative on the part of the national church or of the people. Mr. Innes is a writer of terse and clever phrases; his distinctions, too, are often subtle and suggestive, for instance, his definition (in the preface) of the terms Romanist, Protestant, Puritan, and Catholic. As an illustration of his style and also of his attitude toward the English Reformation, we quote the concluding sentence of his summing-up: "The reconciliation of Catholicism and Puritanism could never be more than partial. The peculiar achievement of Cranmer lay in his framing a *modus vivendi* so effectively inclusive in its scope that Laud could rule the same Church whose children in later generations were brought up on the 'Pilgrim's Progress'; that Church which a few years since included among her sons Lord Shaftesbury, Dr. Pusey, and Dean Stanley." Why to these last did not Mr. Innes add the name of Benjamin Jowett?

—Nearly ten years ago, Dr. Hermann L. Strack, Professor of Theology in the University of Berlin, published a pamphlet entitled 'Der Blutaberglaube,' in which he discussed the use of human blood for sacrificial and superstitious purposes, and the magical and medicinal qualities popularly ascribed to it. The pamphlet created considerable sensation and passed rapidly through seventeen editions. This success was due chiefly to the fact that the author refuted the accusation so frequently brought against the Jews, that they commit so-called ritual murders in order to obtain Christian blood to mix with their unleavened bread at the feast of the Passover. For this reason he was bitterly attacked by the Catholic press, and the controversy which ensued contributed largely to the sale of the brochure and the consequent enlightenment of the public mind. The persistency of this absurd notion for nearly seven centuries (at least since 1236) is most remarkable. The same charge was brought against the early Christians, who were said to use human blood in their religious rites because they were wont to speak of the sacrament as partaking of the body and blood of the Lord. Even a scholar so distinguished as Prof. G. F. Daumer, in his work 'Geheimnisse des Christlichen Alterthums' (Hamburg, 1847), describes human sacrifices, anthropophagy, and drinking human blood as characteristic features of the Christian religion from its origin to the end of the Middle Ages. Nearly every year at Easter intense excitement is produced somewhere in Europe by the report of ritual murders perpetrated by Jews. In 1899 a girl, Agnes Hruza, at Poina in Bohemia, and recently a student named Winter at Konitz in West Prussia, were supposed to have been victims of this sort of religious fanaticism, but the allegation in

both cases proved to be false. In one instance, at Boleslaw on the Vistula, a woman drowned her child in a swamp and stated that the Jews had slain it for their Paschal feast. The body was soon afterwards found, and she confessed that the accusation had been made at the instigation of the parish priest. Professor Strack has now revised, enlarged, and republished his pamphlet under the title 'Das Blut im Glauben und Aberglauben der Menschheit' (Munich: Beck), in which he discusses the whole subject in a masterly manner. The latter half of the volume is devoted to a careful examination and complete refutation of the opinion so maliciously fostered by Anti-Semitic agitators, that the Jews use Christian blood in certain religious rites. The author gives the sources of his information on every point, and thus enables the reader to control the statements made and to form an independent judgment.

#### BYRON'S WORKS.

*The Works of Lord Byron: A new, revised, and enlarged edition. Poetry. Vol. III. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge.—Letters and Journals. Vol. III. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero. London: Murray; New York: Scribners.*

"I do believe," wrote Byron to the Mr. John Murray of ninety years ago—"I do believe that the Devil never created or perverted such a fiend as the fool of a printer. . . . There is an ingenuity about his blunders peculiar to himself. . . . There is one mistake he made, which, if it had stood, I would most certainly have broken his neck." What would Byron say to the Mr. John Murray of to-day if he could see some of the typographical eccentricities in the volume before us? At the end of a famous paragraph in "The Giaour," instead of the familiar

"Yet! Self-abasement paved the way  
To villain-bonds and despot sway,"

we are brought to a gasping halt by a senseless and asthmatic ejaculatory "yet":

"Yet! Self-abasement paved the way."

Again, when the dying Giaour apostrophizes his lost Lella,

"Earth holds no other like to thee,"

Mr. Murray's printer has made him cry out:

"Each holds no other like to thee,"

which is a veritable puzzle in pronouns, especially in the context in which it stands. Atrocious as these blunders are, they pale into insignificance before what stares at one from the very centre of page 288:

"Up rose keen Conrad from his silent trance,  
A long, long absent gladness in his glance;  
'Tis mine—my blood-rag flag! again—again—  
I am not all deserted on the main!"

For this translation of *blood-red* Byron would doubtless have broken the printer's neck in good earnest, nor would it be easy for the mildest-mannered man to rate the punishment as excessive.

What vengeance would have satisfied him for the trick that we have next to mention, we prefer not to conjecture. In the eleventh stanza of the second canto of "Lara," on page 358 of this definitive edition, occurs the following peculiar couplet:

"The stubborn wall that mocks the leaguer's art,  
And palls the patience of his bated art."

The right reading, of course, is "baffled heart." Printers and proof-readers have a right to drop their *h's*, no doubt, for that is "largely a personal matter"; but they should at least

have indicated the omission in the usual manner. "Baffled *heart*" might not look pretty in an English classic, but it would at all events be intelligible, and would not pervert the poet's meaning.

Misprints are small deer, and under ordinary circumstances the less said about them the better. They may fittingly be gathered in at the end of a book-notice or smuggled into an obscure foot-note. But here the circumstances are far from ordinary. We are dealing with a notable literary undertaking. Mr. Murray's Byron is meant to be a definitive edition, and it has many claims to that title. In particular, it is advertised as exhibiting "a new text, collated with the original MSS." Now the typographical prodigies to which we have referred are not in the editorial apparatus: they are in the text of the poems! Such slips as "Chants Populaires des *Services*" for "Serviens" (p. 188), "Timal[eon]" for "Timol[eon]" (p. 311), "claves" for "slaves" (p. 297), "The American Magazine of History" for "The Magazine of American History" (p. 298), "Opera" for "Sallusti Opera" (p. 117), are annoying because they give the impression of slovenly editing and make one uneasy about weightier matters, but they are of no importance in themselves, and no critic would think of dwelling on them. But "blood-rag flag" in Conrad's outburst in "The Corsair," and the inexpressibly comic "Yet!" in the splendid Grecian passage in "The Giaour," fall in quite another category. They suggest the "Vinegar Bible" and such-like historical triumphs of mechanical perversity. And that is not the worst of it. They throw suspicion on the accuracy of that portion of the critical apparatus which, being based on manuscripts in the publisher's possession, cannot be controlled by the reader. For our own part, we must confess that we turned with some trepidation to the ferocious couplet in "A Sketch":

"And make a Pandemonium where she dwells,  
And reign the Hecate of domestic hells,"

uncertain whether we should not find "hecat" instead of "Hecate," according to the immortal anecdote.

In reviewing the earlier volumes of Mr. Murray's Byron, we have spoken of the enterprise in highly commendatory terms. If we dwell rather on the shortcomings of volume III. than on its merits, there is good reason for such procedure. The good points are obvious to the most cursory eye, and are, indeed, precisely what they profess to be. The volume, like its predecessors, is fully and intelligently annotated, and, founded as it is on the archives of the house of Murray, it at once and inevitably supersedes all other editions. In a word, it makes good, in many respects, its implicit claim to definitiveness. This being true, the editor was bound to quite unusual and exemplary care in all the details of his delicate task. His work should, of course, be accurate, but it should be more than merely accurate: it should be artistically perfect, so far as perfection is attainable. And this quality of artistic finish—which is as recognizable in a foot-note as in a sonnet—should pervade all the pedantic minutiae inseparable from conscientious editing. Now the trouble with Mr. Coleridge lies precisely here. He is a good editor in the main. He has taste and scholarship; he takes his task seriously and is not impatient of drudging toil. Yet he seems to be constitutionally incapable of putting the

last hand to his work—of giving it that final revision which tells for so much in the sum, though it can be observed and studied only in trifles almost too insignificant to specify. In the volume before us, this laxity of editorial fibre is perhaps more manifest than in those that precede. At all events, the inexcusable misprints to which attention has been called suggest uncommon carelessness somewhere. There are important volumes to come, and our hope is that either Mr. Coleridge himself, or, preferably, some candid friend, may be induced to give the proof-sheets that last half-hour's "going-over" which is always so fertile in disagreeable surprises. It is in this hope that we subject the present volume to a somewhat narrow scrutiny.

Volume III. contains, besides the "Hebrew Melodies" and a number of miscellaneous poems, the six tales of 1812-15—"The Giaour," "The Bride of Abydos," "The Corsair," "Lara," "The Siege of Corinth," and "Parisina"—and closes with what the editor calls "Poems of the Separation." It covers, therefore, an extraordinarily interesting period of Byron's poetical career, and its contents, from whatever point of view they are judged, comprise some of the most significant verse of the century. Byron's greatest work, as Mr. Coleridge well remarks, "was yet to come; but the work which made his name, which is stamped with his sign-manual, and which has come to be regarded as distinctively and typically Byronic, preceded maturity and achievement." It is the fashion to belittle this work, to decry it as footlight trickery and tinsel, to raise the eyebrow at its instant and unparalleled popularity. In the critical jargon of the day it is called "insincere" and "unconvincing," and foreigners are pitied for still admiring it. "Poor things, they know no better!" At least one of the denunciators has read it all, for he is a genuine *helluo librorum*, but it may well be questioned if the rank and file of repetitious critiques have done anything of the sort. At all events, just as the thorough-going Byronic—and a few of these are left—cannot help shuddering at some of the lapses of which their author is guilty, often in the least opportune contexts, so the most superior apostle of convincingness could not read "The Giaour" or "The Corsair" at a dash, as they were written, without feeling their real, if intermittent, power. But it is too late—or rather too early—to debate the Byronic question. We must leave it "to the next age," which is lying in wait for so many of the critical *aperçus* of our generation, and pass on to the simpler problem of Byron's editor.

Bibliography is not Mr. Coleridge's strong point, yet in editing these "Tales" he has had to grapple with bibliography of the most perplexing kind. In former volumes, as we have had occasion to remark, he has embroiled matters a good deal. In vol. III. he has done better. Yet there are instances enough of vacillation and inconsistency to make the reader uneasy. His account of the editions of "The Giaour," for example, though far more complete than any previous record, is not quite intelligible after all. There were twelve editions in 1813-14. The question of their relations is not a mere subject of pedantic curiosity. "The Giaour" grew from 407 lines in the first draft to 1,334 lines in the seventh edition, and the history of this accretive process is interesting



from several points of view besides that of the professional potterer with texts. Mr. Coleridge's well-conceived table (pp. 79-80) is a great help, and we try to be duly grateful. But we should feel more comfortable if his computations would only balance! As it is, he tells us that a mysterious first edition (extant in proof only) of twenty-eight pages contains 460 lines. His table foots up 453 lines for this same edition. Again, he informs us (p. 79) that a seventh edition "was issued subsequently to November 27, 1813," adding that it "was advertised in the *Morning Chronicle*, December 22, 1813." Later (p. 217) we are told, without any qualification, that this edition "was published on the 29th of November, 1813." The matter is of slight consequence except as a symptom. Other symptoms of like nature are not lacking. In the introduction to "The Bride of Abydos," apparently from forgetfulness, there is no discussion of the different editions—not even a statement that the poem was issued at all after its first appearance. Yet in the introduction to "The Corsair" we have a casual reference to the sixth edition of "The Bride" as published on a particular date. This is not all. The MSS. of "The Bride" are discussed with what appears to be the nicest care on pp. 151-2; yet at the end of the text (pp. 211-12) there is an additional note, and a comparison of this with the prefatory treatment reveals inconsistencies in matters of fact. Apparently the later note is meant to rectify the earlier. We have had an instance of the same kind of editorial afterthought in a previous volume. The result is confusion. We can only hope that all these tangled threads will be unravelled in the promised general bibliography, which is to be prepared by an expert, and to which each succeeding volume makes one look forward with more and more trembling hope.

To return to "The Giaour." It is surely not too much to expect of such an edition that it shall try to settle for good and all the moot point—Who is the teller of the tale? But Mr. Coleridge does nothing here. He quotes George Agar Ellis to the effect that "the reciter is a Turkish fisherman," etc., etc., with evident approval. Yet by-and-by (p. 123) he burks the fisherman and proposes, to explain the last part of the poem, "a kind of dialogue between the author and the protesting monk," followed by the infidel's confession. "Who speaks verses 467-472?" is a question to which neither Ellis's hasty theory nor Mr. Coleridge's imperfect and baffling combination affords any reply. The fact is, Ellis's fisherman-narrator, though he has a conventional standing in the world, is a good deal of a humbug. Byron's own note shows clearly who is meant to be the narrator. "I heard the tale," he writes, "recited by one of the coffee-house story-tellers who abound in the Levant. . . . I regret that my memory has retained so few fragments of the original." This, if rightly taken, reveals the precise kind of literary artifice which the poet had in mind, and enables the reader, without much difficulty, to arrange the acts and scenes, and to distinguish the presenter from the *dramatis personæ*. The fisher who, "fearful for his light caique," rows ashore at Port Leone, may be one of the actors, or he may be a mere bit of motion in the evening landscape. It is not easy to see how he can be the teller of the

story. The debate is still alive in Germany, where scholars seem to be as oblivious of Byron's authoritative explanation as Mr. Coleridge himself.

Worse than this is Mr. Coleridge's queer treatment of "Lara." Byron's remark that, "the reader may probably regard [the poem] as a sequel to the 'Corsair,'" he calls "an admission which forestalls and renders nugatory any prolonged discussion of the subject." "It is evident," he adds, "that Lara is Conrad, and that Kaled, the 'darkly delicate' and mysterious gem, whose 'hand is femininely white,' is Gulnare in a transparent and temporary disguise." Now, under favor, these words could never have been written by anybody as familiar with both poems as an editor ought to be. "Prolonged discussion" is, indeed, unnecessary. Whether or not Lara is Conrad, Kaled is certainly *not* Gulnare. Kaled, on a memorable occasion, refrained from tearing "the glossy ringlets of his raven hair" (v. 1,155). Gulnare's hair was auburn:

"That form, with eye so dark and cheek so fair,  
And auburn waves of gemmed and braided hair."  
—(*Corsair*, vv. 1008-9.)

Of course, Byron "visualized" Gulnare and Kaled. He had seen both ethnological types often enough in the East. But there is no absolute need of appealing to the hair and complexion of the heroines. Between the heroes themselves there are many slight differences—actual or psychological—that forbid their identification. Byron's use of the word "sequel" has been driven too hard. Mr. Coleridge should have compared the letter to Murray, September 2, 1814, in which the poet speaks of "Lara" as "connected with the other tales," and adds: "I would recommend this arrangement—Childe Harold, the smaller poems, *Giaour*, *Bride*, *Corsair*, *Lara*; the last completes the series, and its very likeness renders it necessary to the others." This shows well enough the loose sense in which "sequel" was employed in the passage which has led the editor so far astray.

In quoting parallel passages and tracing illusive tags of phrase, Mr. Coleridge errs in two ways—by inclusion and by exclusion. Exhaustiveness is impossible; perfect consistency is a vision; but an editor should try not to be freakish. Nothing is gained by comparing the couplet—

"'Tis the clime of the East, 'tis the land of the Sun—  
Can he smile on such deeds as his children have done?"

with Young's

"Souls made of fire, and children of the Sun,  
With whom revenge is virtue."

The verbal resemblance is commonplace, and the similarity in thought is shadowy. And why quote Pippa's "God's in his Heaven, all's right with the world!" in connection with v. 651 of "Lara": "The Sun is in the heavens, and Life on earth"? There is no contact in ideas between the two passages. On the other side of the account, Mr. Coleridge neglects to register a number of real allusions—to Macbeth, for example, in "The Bride of Abydos," v. 1,127, and "Lara," vv. 190, 357, and to Othello in "The Corsair," v. 239. Trifles, no doubt, but worth noting—especially in view of Byron's familiarity with Shakspeare, which comes out on every page of his correspondence. It is not to be imagined that Mr. Coleridge omitted the passages because he regarded such jottings as trivial. If so, his ideas of triviality must be rather vague, for there is much inconsequent matter in some of his

foot-notes. To trace, for example, the spirited opening of "The Siege of Corinth" to a feeble stave in an "old ballad" (p. 449) is not only trivial, but wrong. Besides, the piece in question is not a ballad at all, as Mr. Coleridge's authority, the late Prof. Kölbinger, knew very well. Even further-fetched is the attachment of the *Corsair*'s character, by some occult bond of literary derivation, to Malefort Junior in Massinger's "Unnatural Combat" (p. 219). True, Mr. Coleridge has had many predecessors in such elaborate trifling. One note of Moore's, which he perpetuates, is the nonpareil. In this owlish comment the splendid Grecian passage in "The Giaour" is referred for its origin to the following words from Gillies's "History," quoted in "a book which Lord Byron is not unlikely to have consulted": "The present state of Greece, compared to the ancient, is the silent obscurity of the grave contrasted with the vivid lustre of active life." The antithesis between life and death was in the world before Gillies!—We do not wish to be misunderstood. The tracing of thoughts and allusions, and the accumulation of parallel passages, are part of an editor's business. Even when there is no likelihood of borrowing, such things illustrate the atmosphere which surrounded an author, and have their value. But the canon of reasonableness must be heeded, or annotation degenerates into the hit-or-miss scribbling of casual marginalia.

We do not find Mr. Coleridge completely intelligible in his interpolation (from the MS.) in Byron's comment on vampires (p. 123). It looks as if he were unaware that freshness and ruddiness of complexion is one of the unfailing signs by which a corpse is recognized as subject to vampirism. But perhaps we misunderstand. The authorities cited are well chosen, and will put the reader who verifies them into possession of the main facts. It seems strange, however, to omit Bernhard Schmidt, whose information about the modern Greek beliefs would have been peculiarly apposite. The note on the story of the "sultan in the bath" is not quite precise, interesting as it is. Mr. Coleridge can hardly be expected to know Reinhold Köhler's little essay in an early volume of *Germania*, but he might well have followed his own clue a little more industriously—to "The Forty Vezirs," perhaps. The note on Alp "the Adrian renegade" in "The Siege of Corinth" (p. 454) is not so novel as Mr. Coleridge thinks. It has been partly anticipated by W. Bang in *Englische Studien*, vol. xxvi, p. 138. The editors of Murray's Byron know the *Studien*, with which the Byronic investigations of the late Professor Kölbinger have brought them into contact. Bang's note is minute, however, and it was not hard to overlook it. One note of Mr. Coleridge's is downright ludicrous. It is a gloss on *tier* in "The Corsair" (p. 288)—

"She bears her down majestically near,  
Speed on her prow, and terror in her tier."

"Tier," writes Mr. Coleridge, "must stand for 'hold.'" This is on the same page with the unmatchable "blood-rag flag," to which it is a fitting pendant. The pirate-ship, then, carried her armament in her hold. No wonder there were ups-and-downs in Conrad's life if his followers adopted this arrangement habitually when, as now, they "sailed prepared for vengeance"!

The "Poems of the Separation" have a good introduction and are well annotated but for one surprising omission. Mr. Cole-

ridge has actually contrived to edit the pieces in an elaborate manner without telling us anything about the original of "A Sketch." Will it be believed that the name of Mrs. Clermont is not once mentioned in notes or introduction? Certainly there is no occult reason for such reticence. There is no secret about the affair; the facts are all in Mr. Prothero's volume and are matters of common knowledge. Mr. Coleridge has simply forgotten to make the most obviously necessary of all notes. He will doubtless be as startled as any one when he learns of his delinquency.

Byron was notoriously disregardful of grammatical niceties, and his editor feels bound to call attention more than once to defects in style or syntax. But a poet may be "super grammaticam"—as Mr. Coleridge calls it (p. 526), meaning probably *supra*, or is this another misprint?—when the same prerogative is denied to his schollast. Mr. Coleridge, however, accords himself the privilege in question when he says "the *Bride of Abydos*, as well as the *Giaour*, embody" (p. 150) for "embodies," and "It does not occur to him to condone . . . the loves of Hugo and Parisina, and in detailing the issue leaves the actors to their fate" (p. 500).

One turns with pleasure from Mr. Coleridge's volume, valuable as it undoubtedly is, despite its carelessness in detail, to vol. iii. of the 'Letters and Journals,' prepared by Mr. Prothero. This covers the period from January, 1814, to November, 1816, adding more than a hundred letters to Halleck's collection, hitherto the most complete. Almost all the new matter is interesting, some of it singularly so. We may specify fifteen letters, or parts of letters, from Byron to Miss Milbanke. Mr. Prothero has done his work with as near an approach to perfection as one can ever hope to see. We have nothing to modify in the admiring testimony which we have borne to his taste, skill, and good judgment on other occasions. Particular attention may be called to the Appendix to chapter xii., in which the documentary evidence bearing on the separation is presented with great fulness and in a very orderly manner. It is to be hoped that some professional alienist will scrutinize this material with a view to determining whether what is now called "persecution mania" on the part of Lady Byron may not explain much that has puzzled the biographers. Mr. Prothero, by the way, would be an excellent person to run over Mr. Coleridge's proof-sheets in the future. His inspection would insure the finish which alone is wanting to make the editing of the 'Poems' as excellent as that of the 'Letters.'

#### MORE NOVELS.

*Voices of the Night.* By Flora Annie Steele. The Macmillan Co.

*An Unsocial Socialist.* By G. Bernard Shaw. Brentano's.

*Hilda Wade.* By Grant Allen. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*The Monk and the Dancer.* By Arthur Cosslett Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*His Lordship's Leopard.* By D. D. Wells. Henry Holt & Co.

*The Action and the Word.* By Brander Matthews. Harper & Brothers.

*The Jimmy John Boss.* By Owen Wister. Harper & Brothers.

*The Goodness of Saint Rocque.* By Alice Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*By the Marshes of Minas.* By C. G. D. Roberts. Silver, Burdett & Co.

*The Autobiography of a Quack.* By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. The Century Co.

*The Seafarers.* By Mary Gray Morrison. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mrs. Steele's recent novel, 'Voices of the Night,' has for secondary title "A Chromatic Fantasia," and the author apologizes for attempting to play an elaborate composition on a penny whistle. The inexpensive instrument with which Mrs. Steele identifies herself, or her novel, is certainly incompetent to produce sounds in interesting combination and succession, but it has a power shrill and peremptory of compelling those who have ears to hear. This penny-whistle power is the very one in which 'Voices of the Night' is conspicuously deficient. It is a tedious, incoherent piece, without vivid moments, without a single passage to compel attention and hold the memory. The love romance is a convention wherein the author wrests from causes stated an effect impossible to reason. Equally conventional (in the novel of India) are the Englishmen of dark experiences and perfect manners, who with English ladies (not above suspicion) dance for ever in the dark on the verge of an abyss, striving thus to escape the memory of past horrors and avert a hovering dread of their repetition. For the plot, it is possible that Mrs. Steele may know what she meant to tell about stolen pearls and lost memoranda of political significance; also, why she considered these things important enough for revelation; but, unless she should publish a summary with italicized connections, no one could share her knowledge. What she may know, believe, or fear about a profound hostility cherished by Oriental subjects, of whatever race, caste, and condition, towards their Western rulers, is stated, in the veiled manner of oracles, in parables that may mean anything or nothing. Our only definite inference is, that no matter what the Government may do, it is and must always be wrong. Sacred superstitions, however revolting, must be respected; sacred households where wife-murder is a pastime must not be invaded; sacred filth must not be disturbed, because the subject races attribute the quality of sacredness to these conditions and objects so flagrantly repulsive to people of different tradition. Yet if, while a tactful and tender administration is pursuing the *laissez-faire* policy advocated, an amulet that is a message of riot should be sold by the million, or a zennana scandal agitate the missionaries, or the plague devour a certain quarter, it is clear that the Administration is slothful, irresolute, utterly incompetent to deal with the tangled problems of the Indian Empire. To discuss usefully such serious and complicated questions, it is well to have formed definite opinions and to know how to appeal to reason. It is rather unfortunate for Mrs. Steele's reputation that she did not more carefully examine her conscience before embarking on 'Voices of the Night.'

Mr. Bernard Shaw often chooses to discuss serious topics, but should not be subject to a suspicion of desiring to write usefully. 'An Unsocial Socialist' is a characteristic work, extravagant, artificial, overflowing with bad taste, and alive with an

insolent personal force which commands admiration as it forbids esteem. The only dull passages are the Socialist's lectures on Socialism. His theories have long ceased to surprise, and there was probably never a time when they would have appealed to any one capable of feeling conviction. The three girls whose pranks at school, and later, make up the tale, are not like any sort of commonly known girls, nor do they approach any conceivable standard of model girl, but are inventions endowed with certain feminine qualities and caprices which the author seems to light upon by an inspired guess.

It is commonly reported that Mr. Grant Allen wrote fiction neither from choice nor for fame, but only to keep the pot boiling. Little of his fiction discredits the rumor, and, once in a while, he undoubtedly hit his mark. His last book, 'Hilda Wade,' is a series of unrelated incidents connected by the adventures and love affair of a doctor and nurse. The nurse has a phenomenal memory, which absorbs the marriage column in the newspapers, and by prompt and efficient use gets her a great reputation both for scientific observation and for the spirit of prophecy. The doctor just gasps, wonders, adores, and cheerfully abets any wild project initiated by the nurse to satiate her quite antique thirst for vengeance upon a famous surgeon, who is incidentally a perjurer and murderer. The view of a great hospital as a theatre for the exploitation of private passion and intrigue is very alarming. But Mr. Allen was not a writer of purposeful fiction, so he had not to fear the revenge of a host of doctors and nurses all secretly vowing and plotting to have his blood.

Among volumes of short stories for summer reading, that entitled 'The Monk and the Dancer' is at once the lightest and the deepest. The antithesis of the title is comprehensive. Throughout the volume, the intensity of life touches its frivolity, the mystery of death attends its commonness, the passion of love goes along with its lightness, and the things that are push aside the things that seem. If Mr. Cosslett Smith were a Frenchman, he would be labelled "Symbolist," but we are not keen about relegating our authors to schools, so he may be let off with the comment that, for such an amusing writer, he is a little odd, and certainly means more than he actually says. His incidents are not commonplace, but rather picturesque or extravagant or unusual, and he presents them completely, yet with remarkable conciseness. With an air of impulsive spontaneity, his work is really the expression of a well-comprehended art, at once strong and delicate, and distinctively a product of the last years of the nineteenth century.

The adventures narrated in 'His Lordship's Leopard' are farcical, vigorous at first, but gradually attenuating and culminating in a joke which supplies the title and is bad enough to deprecate the best of tales. Only people quite bereft of reason would have dealt with complications after the fashion of Mr. Cecil Banborough and the strolling players; but the spirit of the moment is well given and infectious, and the author never meant that any one should think about the book after it was closed.

The 'Action and the Word' might easily have been a short story; indeed, it could



hardly have been made too short. The lady of fashion who, prompted by vanity, a desire for notoriety, and more money, contemplates going on the stage, is so emphatically a back number that she is not worth more than a curt notice to a society journal. Mr. Matthews's lady contemplated but didn't, which makes the many chapters devoted to her indecision even more superfluous. The joy that may be taken in the eating, drinking, and dressing of wealthy people is one that cannot be conveyed through type and shared by a reader, and no one would complain of Mr. Matthews's selfishness if he should give it up and never try again to impart to others such sensations of delight. Commonplace talk around a dining-table may seem to the talkers as brilliant as their persons and the plate, but, transferred to print, it stands for itself, alone, unprotected, appealing to the cold mind's eye of the stranger. Subjected to such a test, the assertion that a woman is or is not good-looking, oft repeated, in varying phrase, loses that extraordinary interest which accompanies its utterance by externally perfect beings eating perfect viands and drinking copiously perfect wine. Mr. Matthews has done his best with that sort of conversation, and might now stop reporting it, because the public will come to think either that he never hears any other sort, or that, if he does, he forgets it. Some may even accuse him of doing all the talking himself.

Mr. Wister's new tales of the West when it was wild, take their general title from a cowboy's transformation of the word "demijohn." In the first story the characterization of the young boss and his old German employer is excellent, and the boy's management of his turbulent ranchmen quite justifies Max Vogel's belief in his own talent for selecting the fittest. The other tales are inferior to the first in form and finish, except, perhaps, the last, which has a pretty sentimental strain unusual in Mr. Wister's work. The whole book is a panorama of days that are done, days much favored of the gods in having their memory kept green by two such writers as Bret Harte and Owen Wister.

Among tales of locality there are few volumes more pleasing than 'The Goodness of Saint Rocque.' In New Orleans one need not go far to find the romantic, and the city has been an easy prey for indifferent storytellers. Mrs. Dunbar has disregarded striking, almost importunate, material, and found her subjects in quiet corners. Her sympathetic and refined manner gives a literary value to slight incidents and simple characters.

In 'The Marshes of Minas' Mr. Roberts continues to regard with a romantic eye the patient peasants and fishermen who inhabited Arcadia when it was ceded by France to England. His imagination is not fettered by a too profound knowledge of their character and habits of life—a remark which may be extended to his illustrator's conception of their costume. As usual, the author's narrative lacks life and probability, and, as usual, too, his genuine poetical talent finds expression in many beautiful descriptive passages.

'The Autobiography of a Quack' is a very disagreeable tale. The picturesque ruffian is a traditional figure in fiction, but the blackguard who is just base and vulgarly criminal, without one engaging attribute, is only an unpleasant expression of a transient

craze for realism. The second tale in the volume has no more general interest than has a surgeon's report of a famous case, which he describes accurately without sentiment or sympathy. If these be doctor's diversions, a doctor's life is indeed a distressing one.

In 'The Seafarers' there are two well-drawn characters who, indeed, dwelt by the sea, but, during the time of the story's action, at least, stayed steadily on shore. Both are old men, one a soldier, the other a shipowner; and, as the author is presumably young, she is to be complimented on her rendering of crabbed age. The plot is wild quite beyond compare, sufficient indication of a "first book" without the accompanying explanatory advertisement.

*Ueber den physiologischen Schwachsinn des Weibes.* Von P. J. Möbius. Halle a. S.: Carl Marhold. 1900. 8vo, pp. 26.

*Antropologia pedagogica.* Da C. Melzi. Arona: Tipografia Economica. 1899. Pp. vii+246.

*Studies in the Psychology of Sex.* By Havelock Ellis. New York: The F. A. Davis Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. xi+276.

That a German psychiatrist, an Italian teacher, and an English man of science should fail to agree in their views of woman and her ways is no great wonder. Möbius, characteristically enough, begins his essay with a protest against the use of *Frauen* as the plural designation of the creature contrasted with *Mann*. If women are ashamed of their rightful name (*Weiber*), says the author, "that is bad enough, but no reason for doing violence to the language." With Möbius, *Schwachsinn* lies "between imbecility and normal-mindedness," for which last expression he laments the non-existence of a trite German word. The usual items concerning the "intellectual inferiority" of woman, her "anatomical bestiality," etc., are here repeated with a conciseness of speech and a tendency to epigrammatic brevity rather unusual in such writings. There is also some wit at the expense of woman's "instinctiveness," a few hits at "the modern woman" and the "feminists," and a good deal of vamping of old material of the "weaker-vessel" sort. The author has evidently not acquainted himself with the data in such books as Havelock Ellis's 'Man and Woman' and Mason's 'Woman's Share in Primitive Culture,' or some of his naive remarks about woman past and present would be conspicuous by their absence. That all progress has proceeded from men alone, that women have never had any sword but their tongues, that invention is a thing denied woman by nature, that women have done next to nothing to advance culinary art (and sartorial art as well), that medicine has practically no use for women practitioners, that science has nothing of any value to expect from woman's activities, are statements so bald as to suggest, quite apart from national prejudices, an ignorance of the literature of the subject, or, at least, an overlooking of it. It may be satisfactory to the author to conclude that "woman not only is inferior to man intellectually, but also loses more quickly than he does her mental faculties," and that the phenomena of old age are all to the disadvantage of woman as compared with man; but such

dicta need a great deal more proof than is vouchsafed us. There is, too, more sarcasm than truth in the declaration that, once she has "caught a man," woman is another being, a harmless creature, whose existence from that time forth is altogether a losing game. Möbius approves of the popular saying that woman ought to be *gesund und dumm*: for her, science should remain an untouched field, for the cultivation of which she has a natural incapacity. Views like these are still held in high places in Germany no less than among the masses of the people, but within the last few years serious breaches have been made in folk and academic belief, which promise a fairer future, even if it be afar off.

The bulk of Melzi's book is devoted to "pedagogical anthropology," as what we know as "child study" in America is often called in Italy. Here we can concern ourselves only with his discussion of the "Education of the Sexes" (pp. 189-219), which is a good antidote to Möbius. Melzi, who has been trained under Sergi, is one of the leaders in Italian school-reforms, and a teacher in the city of Arona. While admitting, and in no way seeking to minimize, the existence of noteworthy physical and psychical differences between the sexes, and liking no more than Möbius the virago and the defeminized anomaly, the Italian writer pleads for an education that shall make the best of all there is in woman. Sexual education is as just as sexual selection. The shortcomings of modern educational systems, in unholy alliance with her known failings, have long enough dictated the paths of woman's possibilities. In marked contrast to Möbius, Melzi heralds the passing of the old prejudice which has insisted upon a literary rather than a scientific training for women (p. 213). Science alone, he thinks, can save woman from her infantism, which man has so exploited to his own advantage in times past; science can alone add the character woman so much needs. What must come to woman from the "new education" is that real, not dilettante, scientific knowledge which shall "invigorate her powers of observation, increase her volitional energies, strengthen her attention, broaden her rational field, clarify her concepts and her judgments, make her memory less automatic, restrain her fancy and her imagination," make her, in fact, what nature planned, "a perfect woman." No bastard science will serve her; the new régime must be honest and natural. Its foundation must be liberty to be all she can, in the best way she can, when best she can. And through it all she will remain woman. There is no danger of her debasement.

If ever Prof. William James's motto, "Be not afraid of life!" takes on a profounder significance than elsewhere in the world of human phenomena, it is in the presence of those facts to the elucidation of which Havelock Ellis is devoting the best years of his life. The volume under review is not exactly a book for Mrs. Grundy, but the perusal of some parts of it would sanify not a few of her most deluded victims. Nowhere else can one find a résumé of the best scientific thought about sexual life in its narrowest and in its broadest implications. Among the topics discussed are: The Evolution of Modesty; The Phenomena of Sexual Periodicity; Spontaneous Manifestations of the Sexual Impulse; In-

fluence of Menstruation upon the Position of Women; Sexual Periodicity in Men; The Auto-erotic Factor in Religion. True, these are most of them tabooed subjects, but their fundamental importance must be confessed, and the author deserves the gratitude of every unprejudiced man and woman for the great mass of facts he has here made available. We all do not know how, from being with savage and barbarous peoples "a fundamental social law of life," modesty has become, with the progress of civilization, "a grace of life." Still less are we fully acquainted with the real significance of "spring fever" and all that rhythmic outburst stands for. We can heartily agree with the author when he says (p. 203): "The sexual impulse is not, as some have imagined, the sole root of the most massive human emotions, the most brilliant human aptitudes—of sympathy, of art, of religion. In the complex human organism, where all the parts are so many-fibred and so closely interwoven, no great manifestation can be reduced to one single source." Still, the place it fills is very large, and its ramifications are almost everywhere. Not even the male half of mankind, as is here clearly shown, are at all independent of the sexual rhythm; but the field is one for further study and speculation.

The view of woman resulting from investigations and studies like those carried on by Havelock Ellis is an eminently sane and sensible one. In a considerable portion of Christendom, however, woman has rather lost than won as compared with her position in the thought of many primitive peoples. Woman, always the witch, has ceased to be the prophetess. And modern Germany seems more inclined to agree with the mediæval preacher who termed woman *bestia bipedalis*, than with the ancient Teutons, who, as Tacitus reports, saw in her *sanctum aliquid et providum*. To judge fairly between these two extremes of the old animistic conception, so current in the world to-day, we need "a clear and full discussion of the problems that centre around sex." Not until then shall we fully understand the "angel-devil" whose sweet name is woman.

*A White Woman in Central Africa.* By Helen Caddick. Cassell Co. 1900. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. viii, 242.

Miss Caddick tells the story of her journey from the mouth of the Zambesi to Lake Tanganyika in a simple but entertaining way, interspersing it with many humorous touches. Though she had no startling adventures and kept to well-known routes, her descriptions of the varied aspects of African life are full of interest. She is an intelligent observer, and her great tact and kindness in her treatment of the natives are attested by the success of her excursion. To the head of navigation on the Shiré and on Lake Nyassa she travelled by steamer, but the rest of the way she was borne in a "machilla" or hammock, swung from a pole and resting on the shoulders of two natives. She was thus carried up and down mountains, through forests and across torrents, for more than a thousand miles, with such care that she had only one fall. Her "boys," who were frequently changed, were invariably good-tempered, with "any amount of patient endurance and also a keen sense

of humor." Their consideration for each other was shown by an incident that was not solitary of its kind. One intensely hot day,

"when my boys were getting tired, we passed six or eight natives walking along without any loads. They began to chaff my boys and jeer and laugh at them. Suddenly, two of them made a rush at the machilla pole, pushed my boys away, and ran off with me as fast as they could, up and down steep 'dongas,' so steep that I should have had to walk down them with the greatest care. The rest of them came alongside, shouted and sang all the time, and, without stopping, a fresh pair took the machilla pole, changing as they ran. They kept up this pace for more than an hour, until we came to a stream where there was shelter from the sun. Then they popped me down. . . . Of course, this helped us over the ground splendidly, and after a rest we went on more calmly, leaving our lively crew behind."

Even the children were unselfish. At every morning halt they gathered around Miss Caddick, and she was accustomed to amuse them by teaching them to catch bits of biscuit she threw to them. "Those who were successful," she always noticed, "saved their biscuits, and at the end divided them with those who had been less fortunate." Altogether, she leaves upon her readers a far more favorable impression of the natives for their industry, honesty, good humor, and cleanliness than do most African travellers. In the region between the two lakes she says that "in all the villages the people seemed busily occupied with their work; the ground was kept swept round the huts, and they were cleaner and less malodorous than our courts and alleys at home." Here "the men do all the sewing and mending of what little clothing they have," and one of the reasons for divorce is "if the husband neglects to mend anything belonging to his wife"; and "if either speak disrespectfully of the other's friends . . . the marriage can be dissolved." Among their industries is the making of bangles out of the finest copper wire twisted on hair.

"The drawing of the wire is cleverly done. The men cut a hole through a tree, into which they put a piece of iron with a small hole in it. The strip of copper is tapered to a point and put through the hole in the iron. The natives catch hold of the end with a kind of pincers, then a good number of them hang on to it and pull it through. This process is repeated through smaller holes in the iron again and again till the wire is fine enough."

Though Miss Caddick makes but brief references to the life of Europeans or missionary work in the Central Africa Protectorate, her journey alone furnishes remarkable evidence of the progress of the country under British rule. Not in the roads, the coffee plantations, the stations, churches, and schools is this to be found, but in the simple fact that a woman, with no companions but natives picked up almost at random and frequently changed, could travel a thousand miles in perfect security. For days together she saw no white persons, and she carried with her riches of untold value to her boys. At every camp, calico was unrolled, beads and salt were brought out to barter for food and ornaments, and not a yard of cloth or a bead was stolen. Yet this was a country where, a few years before, the people lived in caves and kraals in the sides of ravines or on the top of almost inaccessible hills to escape the slave-raider, and fled in terror at the sight of a stranger. Then, every tribe and nearly every village was the enemy of every other.

The favorite amusement of Miss Caddick's carriers shows the condition from which they had just emerged. They lay in wait at the side of the path, and rushed out at her approach with fierce yells, brandishing their spears and axes as if about to attack the traveller. Then, Yaos and Angoni were deadly foes; now, they help to bear each other's burdens. The chief value, in fact, of Miss Caddick's story is that it is another chapter in the history of the regeneration of Africa.

The illustrations are excellent and the general appearance of the book is very attractive, but a map was due to those unfamiliar with the geography of this part of the continent.

*Pottery and Porcelain: A Guide to Collectors.* By Frederick Litchfield. Containing 150 illustrations of specimens of various factories, seven colored plates, and marks and monograms of all the important makers. New York: Truslove & Combs. 1900. Pp. xv, 362.

From 1870 to 1885, or thereabouts, there were published many handbooks and histories intended for the edification of the collector, or would-be collector, of ceramic wares. Of late there has been a pause in this industry, and perhaps it was as well for the compilers to wait a while and see what the research of investigators in special departments might develop. So much has been brought to light and so much made apparent by comparison and discussion, that books of to-day have every chance to be more useful than those of even fifteen years ago; and therefore it is well to have books of to-day. Mr. Litchfield, the author of a useful account of European furniture, has gathered together and arranged with a great deal of skill the material which this volume contains, and has prepared photographic illustrations for it, both colored and simply printed in black (in half-tone); and with these a very considerable number of little cuts in the text, most of which are "marks and monograms."

The practised student knows in advance what such a volume, of moderate size but proposing to include all the history of decorative ceramic ware, is pretty sure to be. If it should contain any remarkable achievement in the way of solving a problem, correcting an important date, dividing into schools what has been too hastily assumed to be of one group, or any achievement of that character—if any such success were to be scored in behalf of the author, it would be indeed remarkable. The present work hardly pretends to such a marked success as that would be. The preface declares that the book is a practical guide, and it goes safely along the beaten track, thereby serving its readers well; for who are they who, wishing to be better informed concerning the decorative objects in the dealer's shop or the auction room, would desire other than the accepted beliefs? With great frankness the opinions and statements of many different writers are quoted or cited, and their authors credited with what they have contributed to the common stock of knowledge. With a certain uniformity of even appreciation, the wares of the East and the West, of old and of modern times, of England and the Continent, are described, and, if not criticised, at least so far appraised that the student may form a tolerable idea of what



is best worth his examination. It would be impracticable to avoid serious errors, both of statement and of comparative description, and accordingly it is rather amusing to read the brief account of the porcelain of Japan, which it appears was kept locked up "until about 1859, when the famous visit to the country of Lord Elgin and Commander Perry resulted in certain ports being thrown open to foreign trade." Faulty chronology for an act of doubtful morality and of wide-reaching consequences. And so it is odd to see that recent investigation into Japanese records makes no figure at all in the author's notes, and that the village potteries discovered and sampled so judiciously by Morse remained unnoticed. On the other hand, the artistic appreciation, if it may be so called, which is bestowed upon the ancient and the modern wares, is judicious and appropriate to the small space which could be allowed for it. The conclusion would seem to be that the author has worked mainly in London shops full of a constantly changing assemblage of specimens and with all the best books at his command, but with little information except that which is easily drawn from those two sources. The reviewer hastens to state that nearly all the information there is may be obtained in that way; the vital difference being that that which is not so obtainable is by far the most interesting and on the whole the most important.

The pages devoted to Greek vases are very few, and Egyptian pottery can hardly be said to be noticed at all. Ancient British pottery receives a page of comment, while Mexican and Peruvian pottery does not appear to have interested the author at all. All this is entirely characteristic and in place; for the student of ceramics, or would-be collector, the person who buys, or would buy if he could, decorative pieces for his enjoyment and to show to his fellow-collectors, is to be separated decidedly from the student of those ancient or little known wares. It may be said that the buyer of Greek vases is to be classed among a different order of students and of readers from the buyer of Oriental ware or of the faience of the eighteenth century. Even as the book devoted to Greek or Greco-Roman archaeology says nothing about other potteries than that which may be included under that head, so does the writer on "pottery and porcelain" in a general way ignore almost altogether the potteries of classical antiquity. This custom has become recognized, and one would hardly expect to find in a book like this anything profound or complete devoted to Greece, Etruria, Egypt, the Phœnician peoples, or the Roman Empire. In like manner the reader will not expect to find anything detailed or of value concerning the out-of-the-way and little studied potteries of Europe or of the near East. One district is named and another is not, but the name is about all that is vouchsafed to the wares of Anatolia or of the Italian mountain villages, or again of the more nearly civilized tribes of Africa, while, as has been said, South America and Mexico are ignored. It is, therefore, for the collector of modern European wares primarily, and in a secondary degree for the lover of Oriental pieces, to buy this book and to use its full index and its systematic arrangement for all it may be worth.

*A Memoir of Henry Jacob Bigelow, A.M., M.D., LL.D., etc., etc.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1900. 4 volumes.

The first of these four interesting volumes is devoted to a substantial memoir of Dr. Bigelow, the authorship of which is not stated, and to various shorter memorial addresses and tributes from his colleagues and from the medical press; the other three to publications and addresses mainly on medical subjects. The first is, perhaps, the only one that will appeal greatly to the layman, but few persons will take this up without reading it with sustained pleasure to the end, so clearly do the attractively written pages give proof of the brilliancy and genius of the well-known surgeon whom they commemorate.

The memoir opens with a brief sketch of Dr. Jacob Bigelow, the father, a man as remarkable as his son, with rare intellectual gifts, and a temperament of wonderful elasticity and freshness. Then follows a sketch of Henry Bigelow's youth, bearing witness to a spirit, an energy, a versatility which stamped him as a man sure to grow and to lead, though a discerning prophet might early have suspected that the "drudgery of practice" would prove "distasteful to him." Although threatened with serious pulmonary disease, his fresh, ambitious, and hopeful spirit contributed largely to the success of the cure by means of which he was enabled to endure the fatigues of a long and busy life. Boy or man, the paths he elected to tread were often new, his methods always original; and his early life was in piquant contrast with his staid surroundings. Had he not been a distinguished surgeon, he might easily have been a distinguished naturalist, inventor, horticulturist, even art critic. One is inclined to ask whether, if his interests had been more concentrated, his achievements in surgery might not have been still greater; but people must be taken as they are, and his genius was of the kind that impelled and enabled him to follow one line with intensity and extreme thoroughness for a time, but for a time only.

"In 1849, though hardly more than established as a practitioner and hospital surgeon, Dr. Bigelow received his appointment as professor of surgery in Harvard University. . . . It might be said that he was without competitors for the high and honorable position to which he was chosen at the early age of thirty-one years."

As a teacher he had an unusual instinct for divining the essentials among the vast number of facts which confronted the student, and for presenting them with such terseness and clearness that they made an indelible impression upon his hearers' minds, and this same clearness of insight enabled him, throughout his career, to select the vital elements in all the subjects of his investigation.

His public services were, naturally, not numerous; but in 1861, at the outbreak of the war of the rebellion, he "delivered by invitation a gratuitous course of lectures, chiefly on operative surgery, for the benefit of medical men whose services seemed likely to be demanded by the exigencies of the time," and in 1862 he was sent to the front on a private and responsible mission of inspection by Secretary Stanton. He also delivered a public address at the unveiling of the Ether Monument in the Public Garden. For many years before his death

Dr. Bigelow withdrew from active practice, and spent much of his time at his beautiful retreat of Tuckernuc and on his hillside in Newton, his tireless energy always providing him with new pursuits of an original sort.

This is not the place to speak at length of Dr. Bigelow's position in the scientific world, although the three generous volumes which follow the memoir, and are respectively entitled 'Surgical Anæsthesia: Addresses and Other Papers'; 'Dislocations and Fractures of the Hip: Litholapaxy'; 'Orthopedic Surgery: Medical Papers,' give ample testimony that he was a clear and forcible writer as well as a great surgeon, and that his principal contributions, if not many, were of lasting value. It is quite in keeping with more than one side of his nature that he should have been prominent among those who welcomed the birth of surgical anæsthesia through sulphuric ether, and supported the claims of the man whom, with his practical insight, he saw to be the one that deserved the credit of the discovery. For, besides his clear-sightedness, it was an eminent characteristic of Dr. Bigelow—a strange one, some might think, in a surgeon of that day—that he shrank with over-sensitiveness from inflicting or witnessing pain. But it is by the positive side of his nature, by what he accomplished, and by the bright picture of genius which he presented, that he will be remembered; and to these aspects of his life and character this memoir will serve as a fitting and fascinating tribute.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Bliss, W. R. Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.  
 Collier, W. M. The Trusts; What Can We Do with Them? What Can They Do for Us? The Baker & Taylor Co.  
 Crane, S. Whilomville Stories. Harpers. \$1.50.  
 Discours aux Etudiants prononcés devant l'Association générale des Etudiants de Paris. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.  
 Flournoy, Prof. Th. From India to the Planet Mars: A Study of a Case of Somnambulism, with Glossolalia. Harpers. \$1.50.  
 Greene, J. L. Gen. William B. Franklin and the Operations of the Left Wing at the Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862. Hartford, Conn.: Belknap & Warfield.  
 Hart, H. Notes on a Century of Typography at the University Press, Oxford, 1693-1794. Oxford: The University Press; New York: Henry Frowde.  
 Judson, H. P., and Bender, Ida C. Graded Literature Readers: Fourth Book. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 50c.  
 Liberalism and the Empire: Three Essays by F. W. Hirst, G. Murray, and J. L. Hammond. London: R. Brinley Johnson. 3s. 6d.  
 Mason, J. The Principles of Chess in Theory and Practice. Third ed. London: Horace Cox.  
 Myers, P. Van Ness. Rome: Its Rise and Fall; A Text-Book for High Schools and Colleges. Boston: Ginn & Co.  
 Nathan, P. How to Make Money in the Printing Business. New York: The Lotus Press.  
 Norris, W. E. The Flower of the Flock. Appletons. \$1.  
 Odell, G. C. D. Shakspeare's Julius Caesar. Longmans, Green & Co.  
 Paston, George. Mrs. Delany (Mary Granville): A Memoir; 1700-1788. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.  
 Perkins, J. B. Richelieu and the Growth of the French Power. [Heroes of the Nations Series.] Putnam. \$1.50.  
 Plutarch's Alexander the Great. Done into English by Sir Thomas North. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.  
 Poole, R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from the Decline of the Roman Empire. Henry Frowde. Part XXVI. 3s. 6d.  
 Powell, F. Y. XXIV Quatrains from Omar. New York: M. F. Mansfield.  
 Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud. New York: New Talmud Publishing Co. Vol. II.  
 Sloane, J. The Quest of Mr. East. London: Archibald Constable & Co. 6s.  
 Spofford, A. L. A Book for All Readers: Designed as an Aid to the Collection, Use, and Preservation of Books. Putnam. \$2.  
 Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Vols. XVI. and XVII. Scribners.  
 The Crisis in China. Reprinted from the North American Review. Harpers. \$1.  
 The Land of Sunshine: The Magazine of California and the West. Edited by C. F. Lumsden. December, 1899, to May, 1900. Los Angeles, Cal.: Land of Sunshine Publishing Co.  
 Townshend, R. B. Lone Pine: The Story of a Lost Mine. Putnam. 50c.  
 United States "History" as the Yankee Makes and Takes It. By a Confederate Soldier. Third ed. Glen Allen, Va.: Cussans, May & Co. 25c.

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By Dr. H. C. BIERWIRTH of Harvard. 277 pp. (Aug.)

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